

Library Trends

*Current Trends in Library
Administration*

ERNEST J. REECE, *Issue Editor*

January, 1959

Library Trends

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Library Trends

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Introduction

ERNEST J. REECE

WHEN THE PRESENT ISSUE EDITOR became interested a while back in studying certain fringe responsibilities of library administrators, it soon appeared that some other aspects of library administration might deserve renewed attention. A plan for this was approved by the Publications Board governing *Library Trends*, and this issue is the result. It has been made possible by the generous aid of the several collaborators, whose papers have claimed substantial time and effort on their part and should prove useful to the library profession.

The aim has not been to achieve a finished treatment, but to bring out phases of present concern in directing libraries, especially where they have attained considerable size. For example, it has seemed profitable to consider how the administration of libraries is related to that of other institutions, what it presently embraces, how generally its principles are invoked in practice, whether the accepted sharing of responsibility for it is ultimate, what forms of organization it indicates, and the direction in which it is tending. On such matters the accompanying papers furnish expressions which appear to possess weight, even if not finality.

In setting up the issue the hope was to minimize distinctions among libraries of the several kinds and sizes and to view library administration as indivisible. That is, the concern is with principles, and hence universals, before applications. This approach is prominent in a number of discussions. True, several articles reflect largely experience and interest in libraries of particular types, coming from authors who have spent their professional lives mainly in a single sort of environment and could not be expected to be equally familiar with others. The value of such papers need not be restricted to their own fields, however, since Mr. Reece is Melvil Dewey Professor Emeritus of Library Service, Columbia University.

so far as library administration is integral what is relevant in one sector must be translatable to others.

To regard this issue as limited to current trends in a strict sense is less than precise. Its concern with the future has been mentioned, and the present departs so gradually from the past as to offer little more than a fresh page in a continuing record. Furthermore, developments in library administration largely are dispersed, and often identifiable only after some lag. To portray them with confidence often would require extended investigation. Doubtless for such reasons one of the contributors declares that while changes are taking place in library administration, there appear little plan and no clear tendencies. What the participants in the number could be asked to provide is excerpts from the thinking and observation discernible among the heads of libraries.

The sections making up the number are rich in their range, and even more so in the reiterations which render certain matters pre-eminent. Some have to do with practice, and others with fundamental ideas, needs, prospects, and possibilities. This introduction can do little beyond indicating their direction.

The conditions most easy to pin-point are those relating to organization, methods, and status. Centralized administration seems on the increase, as affecting both structure and operation. Departmental plans are undergoing evolution, in pace with the growth of libraries and with a view to compact control. Participation in management by staffs is becoming conventional, and that by laymen increasingly favored. And among public libraries where government through city managers prevails, encroachment upon the authority of head librarians, and even more upon that of library boards, has been working mischief in some cases and rousing apprehension in others. Although so far this cloud may be no larger than a man's hand, it seems to merit the attention two of the authors have accorded it.

Plainly library administration can not be considered from now on as a tight, self-contained pre-occupation of a few interested persons. Executives and governing bodies seem to be realizing actively that their action is shaped largely by others, and accordingly that awareness of what is being thought and done in their environment must be intimate. Unhindered rapport and two-way commerce are imperative therefore, in relation to constituents, community, peers, clientele, and associates, and among the parties to administration. Aside from knowing the commonplace needs, the opportunities and possibilities must be

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sensed, ways and means explored by conference and perhaps through trial-balloons, and avenues for collaboration discovered. As part of the process understanding and appreciation are to be fostered. Contributors to the number have wrapped up these ideas in the term "communication," which can be useful as they particularize it, however well-worn it may be otherwise.

Sensitiveness to opinion and reactions brings stress to a library and its heads, of course, and the necessity for decisions. Is the institution to be "all things to all people," or is it to limit and sharpen its aims? What guide shall it follow when, amid financial cut-backs, it must choose between shortening the quantity of service and diluting the quality? How far shall it take the initiative, attempt pressures, employ political devices, when it describes open doors or is alerted to perils? The contingencies here are numerous and may be perplexing, but no author suggests that antennae be lowered in order to evade them.

Beyond the conditions above rehearsed, such trends as can be imagined grow speculative. The very concern about them in the minds of contributors, however, may attest that some are in the making. It must have meaning, for example, to find even a few leaders recognizing that the attitude of librarians to administration has been hamperingly empirical; that their professional literature on the subject has been scant and immature; that research so far has imparted little to its history and rationale; that the administration of libraries does not differ materially from that of other organizations; and that librarians could profit from the knowledge and experience gained and the practice tested in other fields where administration is requisite. Remedies for the shortcomings thus implied would seem to invite attention.

But what specifically can be hoped for? One of the authors has pointed his paper to this, and notes in the articles of others are pertinent.

With the present linked closely to the past, as has been recalled, the future seems likely to embody a good deal of the present, and forecasting therefore to be relatively free from hazard. Contributors to the issue apparently anticipate that out of current exertions some gains will emerge. These might include prompt re-appraisal of the position of libraries as changes in their milieu call for it; more tenable canons and patterns of organization; sharper attuning to the waves of opinion amid which libraries operate; nicer awareness of the breadth of their responsibilities; heightened skill in the duties imposed by altering conditions; improved preparation to breed that skill; the sloughing

off by administrators of tasks that impede their efficiency; and, perhaps most important of all, detached study of administrative problems, with eagerness to look over fences and seize upon the wealth of guidance in other pastures. There can be no assurance that all this will happen, but plenty of logic in believing it ought to come.

Perhaps as a preliminary, perhaps along the way, a sound definition of library administration could unfold, to replace the loose notions that have prevailed. Beginning with the truism that administration essentially means "getting things done through people," it might make clear what a library head ought to be at. Any such statement of course would need to be elemental, and apposite in whatever situation. It could be a governor everywhere, even in those major institutions which have been forced by sheer bigness to insure order in their conduct. Possibly indeed it is a prerequisite to the adoption of correct principles and means. Certainly the issues in library administration can not be talked about intelligently without agreement on what it comprehends. And very likely the production of competent administrators, upon which the remaking of libraries and the warrant for a library profession hinge, will drag until the responsibilities they face are made clear and cogent.

Institutional Administration

PHILLIP MONYPENNY

THE TITLE OF THIS PAPER is somewhat misleading if it implies that what follows is concerned primarily with hospitals and orphanages. Neither is it concerned primarily with trends, but rather with a statement of administrative principles thought to be applicable to the special situations under study. It starts with the elements which all types of administrative organizations have in common. Since other papers in this series are concerned with specific topics, some of the deductions from the general scheme will be left to the reader to make for himself.

The onset of contemporary thinking about management problems is marked roughly by the publication of Mary Parker Follett's *Creative Experience*.¹ When she wrote, administration, or management, was considered to be largely a matter of impersonal technique. Both the external, or political, relationships of agencies and their internal operation were treated formally and statically as matters of technique and structure. The point of departure today is to treat administration as a matter of interpersonal relationships, as the reference to Ivan Belknap shows.² The climax of this development is the treatment of administrative organizations analytically as social systems as in the works of C. I. Barnard³ and H. A. Simon.⁴ With respect to internal relations there is no question that the trend of managerial opinion has followed that of writing in the field. Managerial institutes and human relations courses flourish. It is not possible to know whether practice has been as strongly influenced as opinion. What is presented here is the current state of doctrine.

In discussing any administrative organization it is useful to make a distinction between the internal and external aspects of organizations. All organizations have memberships which are made up immediately of their officers and paid staff, and ultimately, in the view of some

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writers, of their customers or the users of their service.⁸ In the almost universal patterns of private as well as public administration the full-time career staff is legally accountable to a person or a group who represents the public, or the stockholders, or the original incorporators. The formally prescribed pattern of responsibility among these persons is the organization's structure.

Administrative organizations have not only structure but relationships. They exist through an interchange of services between each organization as a whole and its environment, and between the organization and its staff. Control in any organization lies with those who determine the terms of these dual exchange relationships; who determine what the organization will produce and what it will receive, what the staff will produce and what it will get in return. These are critical decisions since inducements for the staff must come out of the organization's receipts from the external world. Formal responsibility for control is usually vested in the body which represents the public or the stockholders; the full-time paid head of the staff is usually regarded as its agent. Together the full-time head and the representative body constitute the control group.⁹

The relations between this group and the environment of the agency are the dominant features of its external aspect. The external relationships imposed by law or custom determine whether the agency is self-contained, whether it has independent revenues, free of the necessity of dependence on appropriations or of finding a market for its services. Public agencies are self-contained, or autonomous, which have segregated revenues and coopting boards. Private agencies which depend on the uncertain income of contributions or fees are scarcely so. Therefore, there are several categories into which institutions may be divided according to their external aspect: public and private, and, independently of these, autonomous or dependent. Such distinctions do not necessarily indicate radically different conditions of administration, however. Some problems they have in common, and others vary in degree rather than in kind.

It is the terms of the exchange between the institution and its environment, rather than the form of its structure, which determines the policies and procedures it follows. These terms are defined by the things which the institution must receive in order to exist, and from whom and on what terms these things are available. In a city-manager city, where the city manager appoints the librarian, public acceptance of the library and its services may be such as to give the library staff

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virtually a free hand in determining service, subject to income limitations. The interposition of a library board, which appoints the librarian—an arrangement usually regarded as leading to independence—may make the library the servant of the community group from which the board members come. As Oliver Garceau shows, such boards may be virtually coopting, even though formally appointed by the political head of the city, and they may be not at all responsive to those to whom that head owes his election.⁶ A university librarian is chosen by the president and trustees, who also appoint the teaching staff. Yet the teaching and research staff, who cannot control the president who selects the librarian, nevertheless have a considerable influence on library policy. In each case the formal structure does not indicate what the institution must have in order to survive, nor who controls it.

Money is a principal need for any administrative organization, and differences in the terms on which it is available are probably the most important differences to be found between institutions. But more than this is needed for institutional operation; there must be a using clientele, necessary professional and nonprofessional services, which money alone will not always buy, and the prestige and recognition which come from being associated with a respected institution. The conditions on which these are available from the external world are those to which the policy of the organization must be adjusted.

The conditions of support not only influence policy; they determine the points in the organization at which policy will be made. A public library with an active and vocal clientele, which is well satisfied with services, and anxious only that they be expanded, need not be overly concerned about its relationships with a city council. The identity of outlook, and of interest if you will, between the library staff and the public makes the library staff a political force and permits it to initiate policy. A library with an inactive clientele may be at the mercy of a board for which the library is a source of satisfactions quite irrelevant to official library goals. As noted above such a board may be the servant of the community group from which its members come rather than representative of the whole community. Recognition by their peers is the satisfaction they seek, and it is the point of reference from which they judge library policy.⁶ In their view a genealogical collection, or one on local history, may seem more important than children's services.

These considerations make the usual statements about the proper relations between the professional staff and lay control groups some-

what irrelevant.⁷⁻¹⁰ The question is less what definition of relationships ought to be set up than what relationships will be established in the particular circumstances. The advantage of the usual definitions of the respective functions of professional services and lay members of boards of control is that they constitute a sort of Platonic myth to persuade recruits coming into a given system that it is legitimate. If those who govern libraries can be brought to the belief that there are areas of professional decision with which they should not tamper, the doctrine is effective, unless there is a stronger countervailing force. Further, the professional group has bargaining power if its services are regarded as essential. If persons of a desired specialty can be hired only on certain terms, these are the terms which will prevail.

Although there are deliberately created divisions between what are regarded as lay and as professional concerns, there is no natural division of administrative decisions between policy matters and technical matters, nor among technique, goal, and value, by which to regulate the relations of career professionals and lay representatives.^{11, 12} It is not the objective content of the decisions which determines whether they should be made by the professional staff at its discretion, or by a representative body in consultation with professional subordinates; it is a question of the emotions which cluster about the point at issue, of what persons are concerned about it, and of its meaning to them in terms of their future relations to the institution. It is difficult to anticipate the points around which emotions will surge and what persons and groups will thereby battle.

Issues which have become emotionally charged must be classed as policy matters, whatever their standing otherwise as points of technique and not of substance. They cannot be considered without reference to those on whom the library depends for its support. This is not to suggest that matters of principle should be subordinated to the requirements of organizational or personal survival, but only that decisions of such grave import should be recognized for what they are.¹¹

Whatever the form of library organization and whatever the disposition of its supporting clientele, the professional staff will always have a large responsibility for the determination of library objectives. It is not safe to assume, however, that the professional staff can afford to function as a self-contained entity which can work in disregard of forces outside of the library walls.

The questions which must be faced in the decision of policy questions are: in view of their cost, what support is there for these objec-

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tives, and whose support is necessary to a favorable decision; what price can be paid in terms of the other objectives, which may have to be abandoned if these are to be won?^{12, 13}

The term "disposition of the clientele" has been used in this discussion. The analogy is spatial; it is intended to mean the goals to which the various library clienteles are attached and how these groups are related to the governing machinery. Capable management requires that staff goals be negotiated in relation to clientele goals so as to secure the maximum possible support of a defensible program without too much attention to the niceties of what is a professional question and what is not. In summary the problem of institution-clientele relations, or of staff-board relations, is one of winning support for a program rather than of establishing an area within which administrative discretion is unquestioned.¹⁴

If negotiation and management of contending forces are the characteristic of the external relations of a library or of any other institution, they are not absent in its internal operations. Nor can internal operations be separated from external. The staff of the institution must produce the services on which the life of the institution depends in interaction with each other and with the external world.

From the standpoint of internal relations, organizations staffed with professional persons have some special characteristics. A large part of the staff identifies itself with the profession within whose competence the functions fall. Its members therefore take and feel justified in taking an independent view of the goals and methods of the organization.¹⁴ Despite the unifying element of professional training and standards, they are divided among operations constituting specialties which may be carried on in relative isolation. This characteristic libraries share with schools, hospitals, health departments, and other organizations whose staffs are part of the same profession but which have developed a high degree of specialization within the general field.

The position of the hierarchical head in relation to his subordinates is therefore more than usually difficult. His administrative style can scarcely be modelled on that of the old-line factory superintendent. The head of any enterprise must manage the incentives available so as to secure from the members contributions necessary to the success of the organization and its program.^{8, 12} In dealing with professionals the mere use of authority is inadequate. It is necessary to treat the staff as collaborators who have wills and purposes of their own.¹

In spite of this limitation it is the peculiar responsibility of hier-

archical chiefs to achieve some sort of common result out of the operations of the separate parts of the enterprise. Most of the subdivisions of work in any organization do not result in products which are useful in themselves. Those which are so, such as the provision of books and services to readers, are not independent enterprises, but require the concurrent operation of technical departments. The recombination of these elements into a stream of meaningful activity is partly provided in the prescribed routine of any organization, but it is not automatic or self-regulating.

The desired result will be obtained only when the people in each division are aware of each other's tasks and needs and how these relate to the goals of service set for the whole enterprise. Particular crises can be resolved by the direct intervention of the organization head, but day by day operation must depend on habits and attitudes built into the staff.

Doing those things necessary for reintegration, creating an awareness of general goals, defining these goals in terms of the operations needed to realize them, and creating an awareness of the relationship of the parts to the whole are the special responsibilities of the top administrator.^{12, 13} The conditions of cooperation in a complex enterprise can exist spontaneously in a poorly led organization, but it is not likely. One of the disadvantages of hierarchy is that so much depends on the people on the top: the whole scheme of organization makes coordination and control from any other point quite difficult. Hierarchy is the pattern of our time, however, and the responsibility of organizations to the public or to other sponsoring groups requires it. Staff self-sufficiency and accountability to outside control are incompatible conditions.

The recognition of hierarchical responsibility and of its usefulness in the management of cooperative enterprises does not imply that simple legal authority is a sufficient base for the management of internal relations. In current theory authority is not concentrated in a single person or office, and distributed by an act of will. It is a result of the specialization of functions, inheres in the whole organizational working, and may run horizontally, or even from lower to higher, as well as from top to bottom. In professional organizations particularly, staffs are apt to take independent views of policy goals and work standards. Insofar as they have charge of certain operations they are the authorities in their fields, and to ignore them would cause a serious disruption of working relationships.¹⁵

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The best efforts of a professional staff can be secured only if it is able to accept the policy and work standards of the organization as defensible under the standards of the profession. Collaboration in policy-making and in the definition of organization and method is indispensable in avoiding a gulf between the top administrator and his staff which neither can readily bridge.¹⁰

The administrator's role within the organization is particularly difficult because the staff is likely to be more intransigent on the question of defensible goals than he can afford to be, since he must regard the availability of resources and support and it need not. Perhaps for this reason a collaborative relationship will permit a fuller exchange of experience so that each may understand, if not fully accept, the standpoint from which the other makes his judgment.

The staff has been considered as if they were one in their relationship to the administrative chief. Of course this is not the case, wherein lies one of the principal problems of administration. Administration is essentially an interpersonal activity, not a manipulation of non-human objects. The persons on a staff are divided both by their own individual differences of character and by the values and goals which are most significant in the individual jobs they perform. This particularity of outlook is one of the strengths of all administrative organization. It limits the area of choice and the limits within which rationality must operate. It therefore increases the predictability and reliability of individual performance. It increases output since the individual's attention is constrained to cover a more limited field. On the other hand it may well lead to different evaluations of the situation which confronts an organization by members who come from different parts of it. Particularity of responsibility may therefore result in intransigence when there is conflict over procedure or policy, and in refusal to cooperate since differences loom larger than what is common.⁴

The minimizing of conflict and the promoting of cooperation are pre-eminently the responsibility of those in positions of general authority, that is, those high in the hierarchic structure. Conflict is partly mechanical—it follows from the subdivision of work and the definitions of responsibility. A given structure may reduce some types of conflict, but will inevitably increase others. It is obvious that the organization of work should suit the goals considered dominant for the enterprise, so that the largest number of people can identify with those ends even as they identify themselves with their own unit of organization. The tendency to identify with one's own unit, with one's own colleagues, to

accept the values and goals they accept, is one of the strongest forces at work in any organization. To utilize this force is one of the most important requirements of management. The division of work therefore, so that shared aims bulk as large as possible in the official structure of the organization, is a most important consideration in determining that structure. It tends to insure that a maximum area of decision will be influenced by goals which the hierarchic superior wishes to be dominant.^{4, 10}

The structural solutions will never eliminate conflict; they will merely provide new, perhaps more defensible or manageable, kinds of conflict. Securing the attachment of as many people as possible to the general goals of the organization is the surest way of attempting to combine the advantages of the specialization of labor and responsibility with a shared awareness that no one activity is an end in itself and that the performance of socially significant work can be achieved only by a combination of activities. In the process of getting goal acceptance the procedures of group discussion, conference, indoctrination, training, and consultation play their well publicized parts. The tone is set and the occasions for discussion and the sharing of experiences between the different parts of the organization are provided by the hierarchic chief.

The incentives and techniques open to the executive are extensively discussed in other places.^{8, 12, 16} The purpose of this paper is to reiterate a point often made, but perhaps insufficiently appreciated, that organizations consist of interacting people, set in an environment which must sustain their cooperative effort, and that legal authority and a legally autonomous position are an insufficient base for the management of any organization. In external relations an awareness of the interests which cluster around the institution and which must be accommodated in the development of service and program is a necessary element of success. In internal relations an awareness of staff goals and values, and the ability to relate the library program to these goals and values and so win support for the program, are equally necessary. This means staff participation in the development of both policy and method. It means the development of staff collaboration across the lines of organization and specialization. It means a due appreciation of the contributions which the staff make as collaborators in a common enterprise.

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Current Concepts in Library Administration

E. W. McDIARMID

THE TERM "ADMINISTRATION" in librarianship has been subjected to various interpretations and definitions. One may readily recall the typical course in library schools labelled administration, which dealt with such diverse things as the mending of books, posting of bills, and relations with the library board. In many respects, the term library administration was synonymous with librarianship or library work. And in the minds of many people today, there is still difficulty in distinguishing administration from library work generally.

In the literature of library administration of recent years, however, one may see certain limitations to the former inclusive interpretations. Two types seem to be emerging: that to certain kinds of library activity, such as board relations, personnel, and budgeting; and that to certain levels of activity, such as planning and organizing. Under the former, for example, cost accounting would be included almost completely, even the detailed activities involved in keeping cost records. Under the latter, the activities in cost accounting involved with planning, organizing, and personnel would be labelled as administration, but not the detailed maintaining of cost records.

Is there a workable definition of library administration? This writer knows of no one which would delimit the subject clearly for the purposes of this paper. For, though there are numerous definitions of administration, they usually involve either a very broad concept, or one that is almost too narrow. Obviously, a broad description would mean a change in the title of this paper to "current concepts in librarianship." A narrow one could, on the other hand, limit the subject to the activities of only one or two persons connected with the library organization. Neither would be desirable, and the dilemma will be avoided by discussing, instead four attributes of administration: alternatives, analysis, authority, and accountability.

The author is Dean, College of Science, Literature, and the Arts, University of Minnesota.

Current Concepts in Library Administration

The first element, alternatives, separates administration from routine doing. The administrative process enters when two or more pathways are open and custom or rule has not designated the route or method. But this is not enough if administration is to be distinguished from such an operation as deciding which stairway to take on the way to the card catalog. The second factor, analysis, remedies this deficiency, by requiring that the administrative process include consideration of choices. For some alternatives, one might need extensive collection and analysis of data; for others, careful subjective evaluation of possible outcomes. But the administrative process must involve some analysis of data and the weighing of anticipated results. The third attribute of administration, authority, means simply the right to make decisions and expect them to be followed. The fourth, accountability, is almost inevitably associated with authority in any good organization. This term is used in two senses, responsibility for success or failure of a given process or procedure, and responsibility for communicating information regarding success or failure. These four attributes—alternatives, analysis, authority, and accountability—characterize the most widely accepted concept of administration in librarianship today, one which phrased in less verbiage might be described as that of administration as management.

A second concept current in library and other fields of administration is that of central administration. This is almost antithetical to the idea of administration as management. The latter term implies administrative processes as permeating the entire organization and involving many members of the staff. Central administration tends to emphasize concentration of directive processes in the hands of a very few people. Though this author knows of no library where there is actual use of the term central administration, a glance at the literature of librarianship indicates a good deal of feeling that the main practitioners of administration are the librarian or director, and his immediate staff.

A part of the influence behind this concept would seem to be the military organization, where the general staff connotes in the minds of many people a central group, as contrasted with a departmental or regional group. Furthermore, in large organizations the tendency is for administrative decisions to be based upon staff analyses of data and materials—hence the presumption that the staff officers make the decisions. Perhaps the most notable example in higher education is at the University of Chicago, where a certain part of the hierarchy was specifically labelled as the central administration. In other large

colleges and universities now, even though there is no officially adopted term, the phrase is used frequently.

The use of the concept of central administration has certain advantages as well as disadvantages. First, it implies single-minded devotion to the objectives of the organization and its greatest good. Second, it involves the thought of a central pooling of information and data, and an analysis and evaluation of this for the benefit of the organization rather than fragmentary regional or departmental analyses. And, finally, it emphasizes accountability and responsibility. The disadvantages of the concept of central administration lie in the fact that it implies some bifurcation or separation, the central administration being somewhat remote from the actual operations of the organization and looking at them in terms of a few budget figures rather than of specific activities for achieving goals.

Central administration should not be permitted to become a divisive element. This means that it must communicate regularly its concern with the achievement of even the specific goals of separate units, and on the other hand that the various units must make certain that central administration is informed about their specific activities.

A third concept current in library administration seems also to be influenced by developments in other areas and particularly in the field of business administration, namely that of economy. This would be a suitable place to review and discuss some of the arguments regarding librarianship as an art or a science, and likewise the always interesting issue of library service as a mass service to popular needs vs. a limited service to quality needs.

There is no gainsaying the fact, however, that the concept of economy figures largely in library administration today. The reasons for this are obvious. Population growth, which provides more potential users of library work, together with the increasing flow of materials useful to library objectives, the rising cost of service in materials and personnel, balanced against the traditional slowness with which public support is given to public activities, illustrates the setting of the problem. It would be easy to cite example after example of the steps that have been taken to meet the issue: the cooperative library storage activities, the review and analysis of library routines—all of these have had behind them a large share of concern for economy. In many respects the major criteria in a given decision is that of expense, and in recent years methods of obtaining respectable cost information have been designed for libraries and have been employed in libraries.

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In days of rising costs on all sides, one should certainly not decry the emphasis on economy if one is aware of the dangers. The easiest way to achieve economy would be to sacrifice quality. And in an organization whose greatest service may be through quality, this would be disastrous. Another way of seeming to achieve economy would be by an increase in quantity. This, too, has perils. Luckily, in librarianship today there seems to be a healthy appraisal of the proper place of economy, and its use has resulted more in improvement and simplification of library methods and procedures than in their dilution.

The fourth concept is that of lay participation in administration. Lay participation in administration seems much more common in educational institutions as schools, colleges, and libraries, than in business or professional organizations or institutions. While in a big business concern it might be said that the board of directors represents lay participation in administration, this is hardly comparable to the lay public library board or the citizens' advisory committee, or the parent-teacher association, or the alumni association. Furthermore, in recent years there seems to be a trend towards greater lay involvement in the affairs of educational institutions than formerly. The most notable example of late has been the widespread activity in trying to influence the standards and goals of education—a literally astounding outcry of ideas, pet theories, judgments, and proposals to improve the educational system by whatever means the particular individual happened to hold most dear. Such efforts have been directed towards influencing decisions, without authority or accountability, and, in the minds of many people, frequently without analysis. This illustrates the grave danger of over-emphasis upon lay participation. The lay person has little time for learning the details of an institution, and therefore must rely upon his own experience and knowledge in other fields, treating it as transferable to the institution he is concerned with at the moment.

The great advantage, of course, of lay participation is the gain in communication and in public relations. Certainly the more people that are concerned and informed about a library or any other institution, the better chance it has of gaining public understanding and support. At the same time, there are corresponding values of interpretation to the institution or organization itself. One of the great benefits of the current discussions of public education is that educators at all levels are now more aware of some of the difficulties faced by institutions at other levels than their own, and some of the things that are expected of their products. If people could now do less shouting at each other,

and get together to see how each could serve the other better, great good would be achieved. Generally speaking, the concept of lay participation in administration seems to be moving in the direction of responsible action through such groups as boards and advisory committees, with such groups made more intimately acquainted with the organization concerned.

It would logically follow here to introduce a comparable concept in library administration, that of staff participation. This entails an anomaly, for it seems apparent that there can be no organization of any kind involving professional people without staff participation. The question is one of degree, and the discussions of staff participation concern whether or not a staff should participate in every administrative activity or decision, rather than whether or not it should participate.

The arguments for wider staff participation in administration revolve around two factors: first, the wider base of information and experience upon which decisions can be based as more people are drawn into the discussions of them; second, the great increase in morale that is presumed to occur when staff members feel they have a part in shaping decisions which directly or indirectly affect them.

The dangers of wide staff participation in administration are well known: (1) the delay that is involved in bringing many persons into a situation which otherwise might be settled effectively and efficiently, and (2) the likelihood of irresponsible decisions being made, either through the influence of people who have no accountability for them, or by the accountable person but influenced by the effect anticipated upon those participating.

In view of the general acceptance of staff participation in administration, it seems almost heresy to suggest certain qualifications. It is proposed, however, that the basic gain to be achieved here, that of improved morale, is to be attained through understanding and communication, rather than through wider participation in the administrative process of facing alternatives, analyzing them, acting upon them, and being accountable for them. It would follow that staff participation should be looked at carefully with a view to growth in staff understanding, rather than to actual administration.

Observation in the field of higher education, where participation is currently of great interest, certainly supports the above view. In one institution where there seems to be very high morale, decisions are made by those charged with the authority for making them, but communication and the conveying of information are regular and ongoing

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activities. On the other hand, reports come occasionally of another institution where there is much more widespread participation in administration but apparently not superior morale. Coming back to the library, one might well applaud the current concept of the importance of staff participation if it is reasonably directed towards widespread discussion and information, rather than to unwise delegation or shirking of responsibility and authority.

Another factor certainly to be recognized here is the role of the expert. Turning again to the academic scene, no one would argue that the faculty generally should advise and decide in which direction a certain professor of English should pursue his research in the next few years. One may well doubt therefore whether the research professor of English should have a strong voice in deciding which new building was most needed by the university.

The sixth concept in administration deals with organization, or the grouping of activities into units or departments. Whereas formerly there was a tendency to consider the organization as static or stable, the current concept treats it as dynamic, subject to change, and indeed frequently changed. When library administration some years ago was drawing upon the experience of public and business administration in evaluating the bases for departmental organization in libraries, substantial discussion occurred regarding the forms of administrative organization most suitable for libraries. There were arguments in favor of organization by region, type-of-reader, type of material, and subject. Generally, as one reviews the experience of libraries, this trend has served to determine, with some stability, the major bases of organization, yet leaving the boundaries and groupings of various units more flexible than, for example, political boundary lines.

While continuing and strengthening the basic types of organization, however, libraries and other educational institutions have subjected these to modifications and variations. There have been groupings of several lesser units into a single larger one; there has been the accretion of certain functions of library service in a department which formerly did not have them; and there has been the example of formerly independent or separate departments actually merged or combined into one.

There are two basic reasons for these developments. The first is that as institutions increase in size and complexity, activities formerly performed relatively simply become complicated and require distinct administrative units, which must be recognized in the administrative organization.

As for the second reason, it is very clear to any administrator of a large agency that the chances of finding exactly the right person for each administrative part in that organization is very difficult, and with the increasing shortage of personnel this has become a problem of even greater moment. As a consequence the institution, instead of going out to find the person ideally qualified to head the particular activities which are combined in a division at the moment, chooses the one who most nearly fits the qualifications. If he has other responsibilities these are frequently added to the section which he is promoted to head. There seems to have been much more of this in the auxiliary services, such as personnel, purchasing, budgeting, than in the line departments such as reference, circulation, and branch libraries. In a few instances, such changes have been made to reduce the span of control at a certain level, that is, to group into one unit as many diverse functions as can be conveniently placed there, in order to cut down the spread which the officer above will have to encompass. But, generally speaking, the major direction has been to utilize the talents of the person involved, rather than to fit the individual's talent to an organizational scheme or framework.

At the moment, this trend appears to be struggling against another in institutions of large compass, namely, the maintenance of the organization as it exists and the establishing of new administrative qualifications. If one reads the literature of business today, with its strong emphasis upon the need of liberal arts training for the successful executive, he cannot but surmise that practical problems of personnel are partially responsible. It is no longer possible in many organizations, and indeed in many libraries, for the mine-run executives to have had basic practical experience in all of the units. As a result, for persons who have authority and accountability over widely varying activities the important thing is to be broadly and liberally trained, and able to remedy deficiencies in practical experience by broad leadership and understanding qualities, those which a liberal education is designed to provide. In this sense, the search is for persons who can fit into the organization rather than for those who may amend or alter it to suit their competencies.

It is obvious that a little of both is essential to good administration. An organization should neither be constantly overhauled, nor be so rigid and static that it becomes confining. This is an area in which administrative theory could be tempered by careful analysis of the practical problems involved; and in institutions of education, includ-

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ing libraries, this tends to happen. Thus, administrative organization changes, not according to whim or the vagaries of the time, but upon reappraisal of objectives, alteration of functions and activities as times change, and the qualifications of the individual for whom the organization is but a framework for accomplishment. The concept of organization as dynamic deserves to be widely understood and accepted in educational administration.

The seventh concept is that of administration as reflecting in some mysterious or esoteric way the wishes and needs of the community to be served. In libraries, as in other educational institutions, the function of administration has been held to be that of providing for community needs. The educational institution does not exist to create needs, which it then attempts to supply; it exists to analyze, appraise, and recognize needs which are either present in our society or implied, and which therefore require attention. Now this concept, which certainly has had a great influence in educational institutions, often produces more confusion than clarification, arising perhaps from the fact that the problems of communication are difficult, indeed almost insurmountable.

To be more specific, two of the questions upon which libraries receive from their clientele most communication, using the term broadly, concern things people think ought not to be on the shelves, and things of which they believe the library should have more. In educational institutions generally the questions are (a) why does the institution bother with this type of service? or (b) why doesn't the institution offer this type of service? Communications on such questions can be helpful, but hardly guides to administrative action, since they may be temporal, one-sided, or influenced by special interest. As long as the library is thought of as existing to serve certain needs, either better ways must be found of providing the communication necessary to appraise these, or the library must face its problems with imagination and insight rather than by direction.

This matter has a reverse side, the difficulty of communicating to the community itself, even where the goals of the library are relatively clear, what these goals are. The old saying, "One is judged by what he is rather than what he says," is pertinent here. The library is judged more by what it is to any given individual than what it says to that individual, and this means many varying attitudes in the community. And because there are many varying needs and interests, the library evidently is forced into trying to be all things to all people. Because of

the problems and difficulties of adequate communication, it cannot clearly limit and define its functions and services so that these may be fully understood, appreciated, and supported.

There may be no serious harm in this. Indeed it may be for the good of society that such instances occur, provided the library is not duplicating or competing with other institutions, and also provided that it is not permitting other institutions—using the term in the broad sense—to slough off onto the library some of the functions they should be performing. This latter difficulty comes out in many discussions of educational problems. Educational institutions are expected to take over certain of the functions that formerly were provided by other agencies in the community.

Broader and wider communication, both within the library and between the library and its public, is to be commended, and all that can be done to improve it would be beneficial. But since communications problems will never be completely solved, it would be highly desirable for the library to realize that there are limitations; and the fact that there are limitations should not affect the administration of the library in its major concern with the central purposes of the institution.

The final concept in library administration to be discussed is that of research. The suggestion is that the major emphasis upon research in librarianship so far has been in the direction of aiding the decision-making process, rather than of evaluating or testing fundamental assumptions or hypotheses. Further, this emphasis is an outgrowth of the traditional goal of library service, that of helping the scholar or student in his investigations.

The establishment of the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago aimed largely at stimulating fundamental research in the various areas of librarianship. The studies of C. B. Joeckel, Douglas Waples, Pierce Butler, and Leon Carnovsky were in keeping with this end. It was hoped that the original influence would reach to other library schools and libraries, and that there would be built up a large reservoir of research data permitting the re-assessment of library aims and library methods.

This goal, however, is yet to be achieved, for as research procedures began to be used more widely they tended to be directed toward the solution of practical problems. The methods used in making library surveys, for example, began to be employed more in libraries as a means of determining how to do the jobs better. Thus, research in

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librarianship today tends to be more of the hardware type than the basic variety.

There is no easy explanation of why this is so. One reason, already suggested, is that one of the library's main activities throughout its history has been to aid the scholar in his search for knowledge. The library acquires material that he needs, organizes it for his use, and helps him discover and interpret what he requires. It is only logical that in its own discipline, librarianship should think of and use research as an aid in its daily work.

Second, it seems that librarianship's practical concern with its manifold activities makes it difficult to find the time for fundamental philosophical, sociological, and psychological studies. The hope that as library schools tended more and more to be associated with universities there would be greater interchange with the academic disciplines has not been realized. Library schools are so busy educating students with limited staffs, and libraries are so hard pressed to find people to fill their positions, that they have little time for research.

Here it seems is one of the major problems of librarianship today—a problem of long standing and hardly nearer of solution than it was years ago. Until there is basic research in the theory and philosophy of librarianship, as well as in most of the areas of library science, librarianship will tend to be a practical art, where administration consists largely of the application of tradition and custom to newer problems as well as to the increasingly complex older ones.

In discussing concepts in library administration as a part of a volume on current trends in library administration it is obvious that changes are taking place, but it is doubtful if there are clearly marked trends. There is discussion of library administration that seems to indicate progress and growth, but advances as yet are unsystematic in character and extent. It would be well for librarianship to associate itself more closely with discussions and research in administration generally, to the end that concepts might be more carefully defined and appraised, with the long-time objective of achieving a more definitive body of administrative theory.

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Library Administration in its Current Development

L. QUINCY MUMFORD AND
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SINCE ". . . ADMINISTRATION has been used loosely to include all types of activity, ranging from government of the library to typing letters or licking stamps,"¹ the present article must be hedged about with a few caveats and definitions. First, as to caveats, earlier issues of *Library Trends* have dealt with the problems of scientific management in libraries and management in college and university libraries, with emphasis on management surveys and the literature of management.^{2, 3} These matters will therefore be touched upon only incidentally in this paper. Furthermore, since the subject of the present article might well serve as the basis for an entire issue, the treatment accorded it here must be somewhat superficial and fragmentary. Under the circumstances, it has seemed desirable to concentrate on a few fundamentals and to bring to bear on them such enlightenment as the writers have gained from personal experience in a variety of libraries, rather than to use the survey-questionnaire technique, valuable though that might be. Many of the things dealt with here will seem obvious to the experienced administrator. Basic principles are frequently both simple and obvious, and for these very reasons are often overlooked or neglected.

Second, as to definition, administration may be defined as getting things done through people. This is the context within which this article is written, and two assumptions have been adopted as a point of departure: (1) important though administrative theories may be, just as the library with the most books is not necessarily the best library, so it is that the possession of a large fund of administrative theory does not, *per se*, make one a good administrator, although it

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may help; in the last analysis, however, there is no substitute for common sense, and (2) administration is concerned primarily with people, not things, and therefore certain patterns of human conduct and the inevitable differences between, and individuality of, people must never be forgotten. It follows that much of what is said here applies to libraries of all sizes and not merely to large libraries with many departments. To underscore this point, one need only refer to H. M. Lydenberg's *History of The New York Public Library* in that part⁴ dealing with the Astor Library in 1873: "... even with such a small family as composed the staff in those distant years all did not go well at times and ... friction, jealousy [and] lack of cooperation occasionally manifested themselves, as seems inevitable whenever men must work with fellowmen."

The art or science of administration has taken its present form under the pressures of bigness. The complexities of large organizations, great numbers of people, diversity of functions, and multiple lines of communication call for special methods and fresh approaches. It is both difficult and hazardous to generalize about administration in libraries. Although it is unquestionably true that libraries have a long way to go in adopting modern administrative practices, administration is highly developed in many libraries, and categories of administration, such as organization, are more widely developed than others. In order to approach a big subject with some logic, it is proposed to deal with it under the categories of planning, organization, communication, training, controlling, public relations, and supervision.

Planning as used here means the development of long-range objectives of an institution and assuring that the policies adopted are in harmony with these goals. Lack of sensitivity among library administrators to this important factor seems fairly widespread. To too great an extent, the objectives of an organization are taken for granted. It is not sufficient to say that a library gives library service; it is essential that a program be worked out in detail with degrees of emphasis in book selection, service to readers, and the many programs not directly book-oriented. There is no truer axiom in administration than that "nature abhors a vacuum." In the absence of planned objectives, people work at cross-purposes, with strong personalities determining the profile of the organization; short-term expedients are substituted for long-range goals; and staff members struggle in the murk of ignorance and confusion.

On the affirmative side, it should be remembered that goals should

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be realistic and timely: realistic in the sense that they be desirable from the standpoint of the community served or susceptible of gaining support; timely from the standpoint of being achievable within a reasonable planning projection, such as a generation. Objectives which fail to meet these two standards will lead to repeated failure in achievement, with attendant frustration and even controversy.

Organization, or the grouping of activities according to specialty, is intended to facilitate the attainment of the goals of an institution by introducing order, system, and purpose into cooperative effort. Organization is the means to an end and not an end in itself. As a consequence, organization must be built around objectives, always taking into account the human elements involved, because the assignment of qualified personnel is complementary to and completes the more formalized organizing procedure. Libraries have applied organization techniques widely and in many variations. Geographic organization is used in many city branch systems. Departmentation is applied (1) by type of materials (maps, newspapers, manuscripts), (2) by subjects (science and technology, history, art), (3) by clientele (children, industry, schools, the blind), and (4) by function (acquisition, circulation, reference) to name but a few patterns.

Perhaps the greatest danger in grouping activities is excessive vertical organization. To achieve what is a theoretically desirable span of control, some administrators will pile Ossa on Pelion with an array of potentates, sub-chiefs, and administrative assistants that effectively isolates the head of the organization from the people who are doing the work at the production level and, conversely, that makes the ordinary line employee feel that he is about as far from Mt. Olympus as it is possible to submerge a human being. Many factors enter into the determination of an effective and viable span of control, notably, the geographical dispersion of an organization, the stability of the activity, the similarity of functions carried out, and the strength of the intermediate supervisors. The old strictures which would limit span of control to from five to seven are no longer in great favor, and more recognition is being accorded subsidiary factors which dictate the wisdom of a broad or narrow span.

Position classification is the grouping of positions within an organization according to responsibilities, duties, type of work, and the training and attributes required. This practice, which is now widespread among libraries, has shortcomings as well as virtues, and although the subject might be discussed under supervision because of its effect on

morale, it is placed here because it is the means for giving expression to an organizational plan.

Position classification has corrected many evils of excessively varying rewards and status among employees doing essentially the same level of work and requiring comparable training. As such, the practice is to be applauded. Theoretically, human differences can be accommodated within a classification plan through promotion; however, there are the cases of employees who are excellent within a classification but who by reason of long service or outstanding performance deserve special and tangible recognition. There is the eternal problem of employees who do not recognize their own limitations and other employees who are in dead-end jobs after many years of service. The ingenuity needed to deal with such people taxes the resourcefulness of the best administrators. More recently the concepts of longevity awards, incentive awards (either in money or special commendation), and merit salary increases have eased some of the inflexibility of classification plans. Horizontal reassignment may likewise introduce a note of variety for the person who is going stale and who cannot be promoted. Transfers of this kind should never be used to place all the personnel problems in one "limbo" department. He who sows in this fashion will reap a sorry harvest.

The experienced administrator realizes that every organization has its share of people in the problem category, and he must make reasonable adjustments in work assignments and even organization to allow for these problems. A formalized concept of "organization" which is so rigid as not to make short-term adjustments for excessive personnel problems—or extraordinary ability for that matter—is one in which theory rules at the expense of common sense.

Theoretically, a classification system is developed for an organization on the basis of the requirement for work to be done to achieve institutional objectives. Again speaking theoretically, there is a need for just so many positions at each level; otherwise there would be a natural tendency for everyone to attain a fairly high, common level. This concept of a fixed position structure has its value, but herein lies the danger of rigidity when dealing with people. Particularly in a large organization, the capable person can make a real contribution as a specialist, and any classification plan ought to be flexible enough to permit the utilization of such ability with suitable rewards. Special promotion plans to give consideration to exceptional ability are particularly appropriate in an expanding organization. This idea is gaining

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in favor in certain libraries, notably in the federal civil service which has formally recognized the principle.

Communication is a subject largely neglected in administration a generation ago but now a very live topic of consideration. A well-conceived organization staffed by able people may flounder by reason of communications failure. The importance of communicating with the people who need to receive information, with colleagues above and below one in the administrative hierarchy, and, above all, horizontally with associates in other departments working toward an overall institutional objective, cannot be exaggerated. Communication is a device which must constantly be kept in mind, and even with the best intention on the part of the administrator, it is the area most fraught with pitfalls and the likelihood of oversight.

There is no absence of communications devices in libraries. Between the grapevine and the annual report bristle policy statements, memoranda, signs, staff publications, bulletin boards, interim and progress reports, staff handbooks, staff organizations, orientation meetings, conferences, that useful demon—the telephone, and that essential and often over-used monster, the meeting. A full issue of *Library Trends* could easily be devoted to the nature, weaknesses, and utility of this array of communications media, but here consideration must be limited to a few instrumentalities and a few generalities.

The grapevine and rumor thrive in the absence of adequate communication. The amount of time wasted and the damage to morale can be incalculable. There are those who seriously advocate the use of the grapevine as the most effective means for spreading information. The present authors subscribe to a balanced and more orderly procedure. Communication, irrespective of the direction—up, down, or sideways—should be clear, concise, unemotional, and honest. Reports upward should not, but often do, conceal the true facts and thereby corrupt decision-making. No administrator can hoodwink a staff by failure to communicate or by reporting substantially less than the whole story, although both practices must be resorted to upon occasion for countervailing reasons. There is a collective instinct or wisdom by which a staff soon learns to measure the people over them, and every administrator would do well to nail this fact in his inmost consciousness. Much is said and written about democratic administration; if this is a worth-while concept, and most administrators would probably concede that it is, it is necessary to do more than give lip service to it. It should be emphasized, however, that a library

cannot be run like a debating society and that no administrator can avoid responsibility for decisions made, no matter how democratically arrived at.

It would be inappropriate even in such a short paper as this to close a discussion of communication without some reference to meetings. Librarians, and perhaps they are not unique in this, will hold a meeting at the drop of a hat. This is one of the most powerful means of communication. It is good because it brings people face to face, with an opportunity to refine ideas and to clear up minor points. The danger is not necessarily too many meetings but rather digressive meetings where one or more individuals usurp the time by promoting favorite causes, often unrelated to the purpose of the meeting, including the cause of self-promotion. Equally of concern is the fact that meetings, even well-conducted ones, can be fruitless if decisions are not recorded and follow-up procedures established. These simple and obvious facts are worth writing large in all enterprises including libraries.

Training is the handmaiden of good supervision. It is one of the means for developing capable supervisors, for acquainting employees with institutional goals, for imparting necessary skills, for equipping staff members for promotion, and for developing a sympathetic understanding of problems and procedures in different departments. Various techniques can be used to achieve one or more of these desirable objectives. Orientation training, either formal or informal, is prevalent. Taking a new employee around the library and introducing him to key staff members is orientation in a most practical and valuable sense. More formally, the orientation lecture stressing objectives, services and the place of the institution in the community or parent organization may be even more effective.

On-the-job training is probably the oldest, most-honored, and most valuable means of training. The imaginative supervisor can make a supreme contribution in developing line talent through such training, and in its broadest terms it can encompass almost all desirable goals: familiarity with the institution, its objectives, its key people, and, in general terms, the work and problems of other units.

Supervisory, advanced, or executive training is being carried on in a few libraries and with considerable success. As practiced in The New York Public Library, the program covers objectives, areas of service, book selection, organization, communication, budgeting, determination of staff requirements, position classification, library regulations (especially in the field of personnel), theory of supervision and human rela-

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tions, and performance ratings. A series of weekly seminars conducted by the top officers of the Library and making generous use of the case study method covers these topics with a select group of fifteen to twenty staff members.

A few libraries are able to send staff members to local educational institutions for special training, but generally there are insuperable obstacles in local regulations which prohibit this except in the college, university, and special library fields. Encouragement, however, is given by other libraries in the form of adjusted work schedules, small scholarship grants, and similar devices.

Rotation of staff among departments should not be overlooked in developing a sympathetic understanding of problems and in training more effective staff members. A tour in a cataloging department can make a reference librarian more proficient in the use of the catalog as well as more understanding of delays in processing.

Training can be a time-consuming process, but a well-conceived program can do much to strengthen the organization. Properly viewed, training is an investment in time which should pay dividends in better performance, improved interdepartmental understanding, fewer personnel problems, and a stronger corps of supervisors.

Controlling is the means whereby an administrator assures himself that desired standards are being met in the carrying out of institutional objectives. Controls range from those on individual performance to statements on departmental progress. The written report is the commonest device through which activity is made known to the chief administrative officer. His information will be only as good as the quality of the reports he receives unless he has the wisdom to use corollary methods. A natural check is provided when a number of departments report to one officer. It is helpful if the administrator probes more deeply through telephone calls or conferences into any written report which lacks clarity either because of ambiguity or insufficient information. Periodic, individual conferences with key supervisors afford a means for going into problems and performance in greater detail.

Many libraries use service reviews or performance ratings as a means of measuring individual employee performance. These devices keep the administrator informed of potential personnel problems as well as of outstanding promotional possibilities. The performance rating stands on the record for a multiplicity of internal uses, not limited to promotion, and to serve as the basis for answering outside reference inquiries. In a sense, however, these are purposes subsidiary to the

primary objective, namely, to inform the employee of his strengths and deficiencies, if any, and to serve as the point of departure for a periodic discussion of performance, between supervisor and the person supervised.

Occasional reassessment of one department or of the total organization is an important contribution to control. Such reassessment may take the form of an intense study or evaluation made by the chief librarian or other specially designated internal officer, or by an outside management expert or recognized specialist in a particular field of librarianship. A few of the very largest libraries have an internal auditor or management specialist. Such an officer can be invaluable in assuring proper financial controls and procedures as well as in pointing up unnecessary duplication or other wasteful practices in such areas as procurement, contractual arrangements, and generally in administrative checks and balances.

Many kinds of meetings may assist in the controlling function, but especially valuable is the Librarian's Conference or General Administrative Officers Meeting as it is characterized in some libraries. This is a meeting, held at least weekly, where key staff members get together to report progress, to discuss problems, and to work out major policies and programs. If properly used, such a meeting solves many problems inherent in the discussion under communication and provides the chief administrative officer with an excellent opportunity for checking work progress.

The *public relations* function is now generally recognized as of great concern to libraries although sometimes concealed (for public relations reasons!) under the term "representing" or "information." Both the level of use and the level of financial support are likely to bear a direct relationship to public relations. The best public relations is that carried on at the service level through work done expeditiously and well and through a cordial receptivity to the library's public. But this work and the library's larger role can be interpreted more effectively and with greater impact through an organized public relations program. The face the library presents to the outside world in the form of letters, telephone techniques, signs, exhibits, and publications helps to set the tone of the institution. Most large and many medium-sized libraries have recognized this by having one or more staff members specialize in public relations. Two principles are worth remembering, however, whether the program is so formalized or just another duty of the chief librarian: (1) a public relations program is viable only

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insofar as it honestly represents the organization and (2) it is always possible to say "no" pleasantly, and it invariably pays to do so.

Although placing the library before its public in a favorable light is an important public relations function, it would be a mistake to conclude that the responsibility begins or ends there. Perhaps even more important is timely action to prevent unfavorable publicity. This may take the form of deciding not to do something because of its adverse public relations effect or moving rapidly and decisively to minimize or negate adverse reaction when a mistake has been made or there has been an unfortunate occurrence. In both of these instances, the chief librarian will do well to take counsel with his public relations expert if he has one; otherwise, the advice of other staff members with a public relations consciousness can be invaluable. To be most effective, the public relations specialist should be a part of the top-management team, participating in policy-making and program planning—business has long since recognized this—because there are public relations aspects to most managerial decisions. An additional essential is to instill into the minds of all staff members the necessity of informing the public relations officer in advance of either happy or potentially bad news. Basically this is a problem in communication, but it is evident that a public relations specialist can only act effectively when fully informed. A corollary to this is that it is wise to centralize all press (and similar) contacts in the public relations specialist if there is one. Much public relations misfortune can stem from each of many officials on a staff being his own expert. The picture which almost inevitably emerges from such a situation is one of conflict and confusion.

Supervision and administration are frequently used interchangeably. Whereas administration has been defined broadly as getting things done through people, supervision may be regarded as the technique of getting the daily work done. It is a subject so inextricably bound up with human relations that it is impossible to cover the subject, even superficially, without pointing out some of the things that matter to employees and of which the supervisor must be mindful. The belief that salary is the sole concern of employees has long since gone by the board. Compensation, although important, takes its place with other things that employees desire:

1. To be part of an activity of which they can be proud
2. Interesting work

3. Fairness and ability in supervision
4. Recognition of accomplishment
5. To be told things they have a right to know
6. A chance for self-expression
7. Fair compensation
8. Opportunity for advancement
9. Good working conditions, particularly in relation to light, space, temperature, and absence of noise
10. Security
11. Acceptance as an individual.

Administrators of large libraries are increasingly aware that the strength of an organization often rests in the intermediate supervisor. Too frequently such supervisors, in a library with excessive vertical organization, identify themselves with the staff rather than with the administration of which they are a part. This may result in development of anti-administration attitudes and poor morale. Policies may not be carried out, and the chief librarian may find himself constantly involved in petty problems, thereby diverting his time from major issues. All of these considerations suggest the importance of selecting supervisors with care and with an eye to the factors listed above which are of concern to employees. A supervisor must have qualities other than ability to do good work, important though this is. Common sense, fairness, humanity, loyalty, courage, and forcefulness (but short of the point of driving others) are some of the leadership qualities to look for. Since there is no oversupply of people with these virtues, a training program to develop supervisors is greatly to be desired.

One quality not listed above but which is of inestimable value in administration is a sense of humor. In any group of people working closely together, there are sure to be times when there are severe differences of opinion. Particularly in meetings, situations will become tense and tempers may be short. The administrator who can relieve this tension by a humorous twist is gifted indeed. It is a quality which, if not forced, is well worth cultivating.

Wise delegation of authority commensurate with responsibility is practiced by successful administrators. The person who must do everything himself is almost sure to be one who is insecure within himself and distrustful of others, not qualities to be sought in administrators or supervisors. The other extreme, "throwing the reins out of the buggy" as one writer characterized it, is equally to be deplored.

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Intelligent delegation is a prime instrument for training supervisors and for developing strength in an organization.

In conclusion, no attempt will be made to summarize but rather to point out some of the implications of the discussion. Because of the importance of planning, organization, training, controlling, public relations, and supervision, the wise administrator will keep the principles which underlie these concepts in mind and will recognize their interrelation as he deals with long-range objectives and day-to-day problems. Quickly recognizing that Aristotle's golden mean is nowhere more applicable than in administration, the good administrator will avoid over-delegation as scrupulously as too little delegation, will perhaps err on the side of too little organization rather than over-organizing and repeatedly reorganizing, will ponder the public relations impact of his actions, particularly in cases where there is clearly an element of choice, and will not rush needlessly into trouble. If he has a public relations specialist, the chief librarian will have recourse to such counsel on matters that may have nothing to do with publicity but that do have important implications in internal and external relations. Finally, he will see that the heart of administration is dealing with staff members, and therefore he will always keep in close touch with matters of substance which concern the people who work under him.

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Library Administration in Great Britain

W. A. MUNFORD

BY ADMINISTRATION is meant the provision and maintenance, unobtrusively, of satisfactory environments in which purposes can be fulfilled and functions carried on smoothly and efficiently. Library administration differs in no significant manner from the norm, and there is little reason to disagree with Archibald McLeish when, after the initial reorganization of the Library of Congress, he wrote: "I am even more doubtful now than I was then that the administration of a library differs essentially from the administration of any other organization in which highly developed personalities are combined in a highly complicated undertaking."¹ It is in the light of these assumptions that these comments are made on administrative trends in Great Britain. Perhaps readers may be reminded that surveys of this kind are greatly facilitated now that the annual *The Year's Work in Librarianship* (1928-50) has given place to quinquennial volumes. The first of these, *Five Years' Work in Librarianship 1951-1955*, edited by P. H. Sewell, the head of one of the British schools of librarianship, was published early in 1958.² This volume is an important supplement to the quarterly *Library Science Abstracts* (1950—); each is a publication of which the Library Association has reason to be proud. Another survey of library trends, say in 1955 and 1956, is provided, if less obviously, by Thomas Landau's *Encyclopedia of Librarianship*,³ also published in 1958.

The fundamental problems of library administration are be-fogged in Great Britain partly at least because most library units are small ones; those who administer them are also personally involved, to greater or less extent, in the consequential daily routines. In the larger units routines are performed and incidental problems solved at appropriate levels, the residue of problems found partly or wholly insoluble at the levels at which they are encountered being "passed up." The Mr. Munford is Director-General, National Library for the Blind, London and Manchester, England.

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better planned and integrated the unit of administration the more day-to-day problems will be solved departmentally and the fewer will call for the personal attention of the chief librarian. The essential reference is not to anything in the literature of librarianship but to *Exodus*, Chapter 18, verses 13-26.

The puzzling question of top-level involvement in routines has encouraged the librarians of some of the largest British library units to argue that there are basic differences between the administration of large and small units. The memory is cherished of innumerable meandering discussions on this topic with the late Charles Nowell, city librarian of Manchester. He taught much librarianship on the way to inevitable disagreements; he never was convincing that basic differences existed or could exist. Librarianship was, is, and must be one and indivisible. Certainly one may not be able to see the wood for the trees, or alternatively, to see the trees in the wood. This granted, it still is to be proved that a wood does not consist, necessarily and essentially, of trees; or that a sufficient number of trees in close proximity to each other do not constitute a wood.

The general approach to library administration in Great Britain continues to be empirical, partly at least because most of the present generation of senior librarians, like their predecessors, have trained by an informal system of apprenticeship. Relatively few articles on the broad issues of administration are published in the professional periodicals. The average British librarian troubles himself but little with such well-worn concepts as "line and staff" or "span of control." Yet of course he is concerned with them, and on occasion may even find himself in situations analogous with that of M. Jourdain. It is to be hoped he laughs, but British librarians still take life too seriously to laugh at themselves very much or very often. Their approach again is empirical; it is not inductive. Yet one of the essential qualities of a profession is the historical consciousness of its members; the realization that a wealth of valuable experience lies almost unlocked, ready for inspection, in the records of past generations of practicing librarians, comes slowly in Britain. A most welcome introduction to a broader view has been published recently by Raymond Irwin in the shape of his *Origins of the English Library*.⁴ There is, however, at least as great a need for vignettes of the kind which the present author attempted in "John Pink: Portrait of a Victorian Librarian,"⁵ and which C. B. Oldman, Simon Nowell-Smith, and another hand have published more recently in *English Libraries 1800-1850*.⁶ The historically minded

librarian in Britain certainly faces discouragement; it is only too evident that many students sitting the Library Association's Final Examination in Organization and Administration will go to absurd lengths to avoid answering questions calling for the historical approach. Unhappily they will find it well-nigh impossible, when times are bad, to draw on

"A curious remedy for present cares,
And yet as near a good one as I know
Is to scan the cares of long ago."

Trends in British library administration must be viewed against a background in which steadily increasing demands by readers have to be satisfied in buildings which are only too often inadequate, inconvenient, and obsolescent. Gabriel Naudé reminded his first readers in 1627 that "libraries are neither built nor esteemed but for the service and benefit which we may receive from them."⁷ This being still granted, it seems quite lamentable that so many services in Britain operate in and from buildings which have long outgrown their usefulness. Some university libraries, notably those at Oxford, Sheffield, and Birmingham, have obtained new buildings since World War II; and the National Library of Scotland and the Scottish Central Library, both in Edinburgh, and the Northern Branch of the National Library for the Blind in Manchester, have also been re-housed. The National Central Library in London and a limited number of public libraries, including examples at Liverpool, Plymouth, and Dover, have been able to replace war-damaged accommodations in whole or in part; a few, notably those of Manchester and Sheffield, have opened new branches. Yet the crying need for large new central libraries in many towns and for large modern headquarters in many counties has remained unsatisfied. The immediate postwar period, during which Local Authority building was almost entirely limited to dwelling houses and schools, has now given place to an interlude of capital restriction which insures, with equal efficiency, that libraries are not built. It may well happen, of course, that modern theories of capital expenditure will encourage the erection of new library buildings in bad rather than in good times.

No specially marked trends are observable in the activities of governing bodies. Some public library committees still appear to exercise a surprising degree of control in detail. It is probable that few committees now take such active parts in the actual selection of books, tasks which many of them in the past have performed with all the

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confident dexterity of Jorrock's pursuing foxes. This process of disengagement would represent a consummation all the more devoutly to be wished, bearing in mind that book votes have substantially increased in recent years. It is regrettably noticeable, however, that increasing book prices have tended to keep ahead of increasing book votes.

In the financial field, in general, the British librarian cannot usefully spend as much of his time as his American colleague sometimes may in raising money for his library; his scope is more severely restricted, at least partly by tradition. In librarian/governing body relationships in general, the librarian who is still uncertain whether he is best cast for the role of Pooh Bah, Grey Eminence, or a character of intermediate quality will have found better guidance and advice in K. C. Wheare's *Government by Committee*⁸ than in any modern work on library administration that has come to notice.

It is in the public library field that the widest administrative question has been raised—the appropriate or minimum size of the unit. *The McColvin Report*⁹ of 1942 presented the case for larger areas on grounds which bore recognizable similarities to the trends of *The General Report of the Public Library Inquiry*. The Library Association has devoted much time and thought to the question during the postwar period; its assiduity and its resulting discomfitures have been each of endearing, Balaam-like quality. Assuming now, as must be done, that *ad hoc* library areas on the McColvin pattern are phenomenally unlikely, the some—, many—, most—, or all— purpose Local Authority retains its full interest for librarians.

Local government reorganization is a subject which is handled by British governments with the degree of confident assurance normally reserved for such other matters as divorce law or sabbath observance reform. The nettle has again been reluctantly grasped, however; libraries have been singled out for special consideration and, at the time of writing, a committee under the exceptionally able and distinguished chairmanship of Sir Sydney Roberts (S.C.R. of Cambridge) is preparing its recommendations for the Minister of Education.

The Roberts Committee has "to consider the structure of the public library service in England and Wales and to advise what changes, if any, should be made in the administrative arrangements, regard being had to the relation of public libraries to other libraries." It probably has been deluged with advice of remarkably varying degrees of disinterestedness. The Library Association has prepared and published

its own *Memorandum of Evidence*.¹⁰ This is, unfortunately, a manifestation of compromise rather than of leadership. Few if any are proud of it, and it is interesting much less for its own inconsiderable merits than because its compromises can hardly fail to run parallel with those which the Roberts Committee must itself inevitably consider. Faced by strong opposition to the delimiting of minimal areas by the Local Authorities in its institutional membership, and by some of the librarians who at present administer the smaller units, the Library Association has had to argue its case obliquely. Its Memorandum refers, *inter alia*, to the possibility of some small library units being assimilated by some county libraries; to the possible extension of some urban units by the inclusion of their "fringes" (i.e., by taking them over from county libraries); and to possible amalgamations and joint services. Among the firmest of other medusal recommendations are those favoring a "supra-local source of support and guidance" (perhaps the Ministry of Education). It is the librarians who are in search of the support and the Local Authorities who are least keen on the guidance.

British public libraries have been for a century the least centrally supervised of Local Authority services; many librarians have thought and many feel now that the strait jacket of local financing needs unlacing. This feeling has grown with the self-imposed restrictions on Local Authority expenditure, restrictions which have been encouraged by government admonitions. It is perhaps ironically characteristic of postwar Britain that the welcome for the expanded services of the welfare state has not been accompanied, as yet, by any logical understanding or acceptance of the full financial implications.

The procurator of libraries in Augustan Rome is believed to have been the worst paid of the procurators, and the discrepancy has continued through the centuries; the salaries of librarians and their staffs have always tended, with rare and happy exceptions, to be low. Substantial but insufficient improvements have been effected in Britain since World War II, not a few of them being due to untiring, unpublicized effort by the secretary and senior staff of the Library Association. University librarians now have a much better expectation of professional status than ever before; special librarians are relatively much better placed; and very considerable advances have been made in the libraries of government departments. In public libraries any further upward trends are now framed fairly rigidly by nationally negotiated and locally adopted salary scales. These scales have re-

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sulted unfortunately in public libraries in a serious promotion bottleneck at the level of the lowest professional grade (A.P.T. 1), whose minimum compares favorably and its maximum most unfavorably with the comparable scale for school teachers. Public librarians who in the past have been able to give devoted and unflagging attention to the improvement of their salaries and those of their staffs—librarians are seldom as professionally usefully employed as when seeking to increase their own salaries—now find their never easy tasks almost incredibly difficult.

Restrictions on Local Authority expenditures have also caused much stubborn resistance to larger library staffs, despite increased circulation and reference performance; this resistance has, in its turn, encouraged work-study, more standardized processes, and the adoption of labor-saving devices. Some librarians have always been "work-study conscious;" it must be admitted that trends in sharp contrast have also been noticeable. Sometimes, as in the monastic library, "administrative arrangements and procedures struck deep root in tradition and the idea of vested official rights became dominant."¹¹ The old-time librarian of Frankfurt who, as Lord Acton once reminded his readers, "raised drudgery to a fine art," has never been entirely deprived of British disciples.

There is considerable scope for job analysis in nearly all British libraries; the ubiquity of the small unit must inevitably blur progress. Over a wider field the O and M (Organization and Methods) investigations have not been without influence on library administration. The best known investigations have been undertaken by the Treasury, by the Metropolitan Boroughs, and by specializing commercial firms called in to advise by other firms and by Local Authorities. The investigations have provided specially favorable environments in libraries for the introduction of new or developed charging systems; including photo-charging, first used, of course, at Gary, Indiana, nearly twenty years ago, and token charging, introduced by The Westminster Public Libraries in 1954. The token system, which controls the number of books issued to a reader but does not identify them, has been adopted also by a few other libraries but, understandably, mostly for controlling the circulation of fiction. Many libraries still remain faithful to their traditional methods and public libraries mostly to their well-tried Browne system. The Newark system has never found many advocates in Britain. The most interesting standardizing process, on the other hand, has been introduced, as it were indirectly, through the establishment

in 1950 of *The British National Bibliography*. The B.N.B. organization, a major development of which British librarianship can be proud, now issues printed catalog cards. More and more libraries will undoubtedly take advantage of the standardizing of cataloging and classifying procedures thus made possible, economical, and easy.

Administrative progress there has certainly been, but always, as Doctor Johnson helpfully reminded us in his life of Milton, "the speed of the horseman must be limited by the power of his horse." What of the training of staffs?

Up to the outbreak of the second World War, the only school of librarianship was at University College in London. This pioneer and now wholly post-graduate school has continued to enhance its always high reputation, and the recent designation of its popular director, Raymond Irwin—president of the Library Association in 1958—as the first British Professor of Library Studies gave immense pleasure to all. Since 1945 schools have been established in colleges of commerce and technology at Birmingham, Brighton, Leeds, Loughborough, Manchester, Newcastle, and Glasgow, and in two places at London. These are non-university schools; and although the recent upgrading of some of their parent institutions may bring other changes in its wake, they prepare their students not for their own degrees or diplomas but for the examinations of the Library Association. The students, who include an increasing number of graduates, are mostly on one year's grant-aided or unpaid leave from their employing libraries, and they prepare mostly for the "Registration" examination. This is not a "final"; and it would be controversial to describe it as an "intermediate," since the student who has passed it faces no further examination barrier prior to acceptance as a chartered librarian.

Every schoolboy finds his friends' mothers' cakes better than those baked at home. Some British librarians express preference for the "internal" examinations of the American schools just as some Americans, it is whispered, cast longing eyes on the all-but-single national standard. The controversy cannot be discussed here, and there can be no more than reference to one aspect of the teaching. It appears that in their teaching of administration the British schools are studying overseas practice, and particularly American and Scandinavian practice, to such good and happy effect that the old empirical approach is seriously threatened.

Most members of library staffs, notably public library staffs, are still recruited from the ranks of school-leavers rather than of university

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graduates. Napoleon's tiresome wisecrack about private soldiers and field marshals' batons could still be justifiably inscribed over the door of nearly every non-university staff room in Britain. The postwar revolution in higher education has, however, seriously restricted the supply of suitable school-leavers. In contrast with the practice of numerous other countries, the preference has been to allow the cost of a university education to remain relatively high and to meet the situation by vastly increasing the scope, variety, and amounts of government and Local Authority grants to undergraduates. Many of the most promising of the school-leavers who before the war might have considered librarianship as a career, can now proceed much more easily to universities; librarianship, by and large, is not yet prepared to recruit them in adequate numbers three years later. It is especially ironical that the Local Authorities who now provide so many of the grants for undergraduates should have done so little to insure that at least their library departments recruit a reasonable share of the graduates. One of the incidental results of changes in university entrance may also have considerable influence on the proportional representation of the sexes on library staffs.

Statistics made available by the University Grants Committee show that only 25 per cent of undergraduates are women. There is a variety of reasons for this state of unbalance; an obvious consequence is that it is now much easier for libraries to recruit girl rather than boy school-leavers of suitable quality. Although there were still some all-male staffs even as late as the thirties, most had by then already recruited some women; in 1958 the trend is distinctly toward feminization. Of the Library Association's current personal membership of 10,500, seven thousand are women. As far as non- and sub-professional duties are concerned, librarianship is now primarily an occupation for women. The feminizing trend is, as yet, less marked in professional posts. Men certainly still hold most of the more senior posts, but in 1958 one-half of the 4,707 chartered librarians (i.e. professionally qualified) are women; assuming that the preponderance of women in recent lists of new chartered librarians continues, then the future can be forecast accurately enough without the aid of astrology.

Library administration is relevant not only in the context of the individual unit, but concerning such units as they work together. It would be difficult to visualize a calling where the members are, in general, any more willing—nay eager—to help each other. This predictable helpfulness has done much to provide the essential psycho-

logical basis for the British system of cooperation. The present is a period of transition during which inter-lending is being very substantially underwritten by stock-planning. A variety of schemes have been and are being built up, regionally and nationally, among libraries of various kinds and units of various sizes. The stock specialization scheme of the Metropolitan Boroughs is singled out, not only on account of its own merits, but also because the development of planned cooperation between the public libraries of London has been one of the most remarkable library events since the war. The *Vollans Report*¹² should be cited as the most important single document in this administratively important field of cooperation: its influence has already assumed the character of a chain reaction. Very sensibly, special attention has been given to the heavy cost of inter-lending. There probably has been error in comparing too readily the cost per book borrowed by one library from another with the average cost of loans to readers from a single unit, instead of with marginal costs, i.e., with the costs of providing and lending the books which the single unit is just prepared to acquire and circulate locally. But a study by national agencies completed in 1954 has expressed the view that "in view of the necessarily high cost of inter-library lending and at the risk of re-stating the obvious, we desire to affirm that the most effective contribution which the individual library can make to the success of library cooperation is to improve its own book-stock and its services to its own readers."¹³ In addition, it is a noticeable current trend that many more libraries, including some of the smaller units, are now extending their coverage to include materials other than books, manuscripts, pamphlets, and periodicals, such as, discs, tapes, films, and filmstrips.

In brief, British administrative trends seem full of interest. There is much to learn, notably from American librarianship, and the increasing internationalizing of the profession can be anticipated with pleasure. Perhaps the greatest single weakness of the professional outlook in Britain is that those representing it are still excessively "public library minded"—witness this present contribution. But they are aware of this weakness; the remedies lie in their own hands.

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Governing Authorities of Today

KARL O. BURG

HOW DO THE GOVERNING AUTHORITIES of libraries rate today? What differences exist in government between autonomous and institution-sponsored libraries? What is the composition of the controlling bodies? Has it changed from that of yesterday? What are their viewpoints? Are these different from what prevailed in years back? What are their competence and understanding compared to those of yesterday? Do they represent their clientele? Do they have a sense of responsibility? Are they intimate with the purposes and activities of their libraries? Are they conversant with administrative principles as applicable to libraries of their particular type?

In order to answer some of these questions it is necessary to examine each kind of library in turn—the institution-sponsored one as exemplified in college, university, and special libraries within a corporate structure; and the various types of autonomous libraries, such as those of cities, counties, and regions, and independent research libraries. Much that appears has roots going too far back for it to qualify wholly as current, but it is at least partly the outcome of trends and to that extent deserves a place in the 1959 record.

The unprecedented increase in college and university students and the corresponding pressures brought on these institutions create many problems for college and university librarians. Both are faced with the need for more books, more staff, more space, and departmental libraries to back up the new emphases in education. Both must re-examine their operations in these terms and present their needs to their governing bodies. The machinery for doing so differs to some extent in the two cases, but the problem is the same.

The college library seems to lend itself quite clearly to a division of labor through a balanced participation by a trustees committee, the president of the college, the faculty—through a faculty library committee—and the librarian. The distribution of functions rests in some

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measure upon statute, but for the most part it either follows custom or conforms to a sensible and effective division of the responsibilities involved. The board of trustees, being charged with the conduct of the college as a whole, is the body to supply funds, to adopt policies, to confirm appointments, and to act as final arbiter in whatever matters may need to be referred to it. The librarian prepares a program to develop and effectuate policies, to direct operations, to select personnel, and with the aid of that personnel to carry out the functions of the library. Contact between the librarian and trustees may be through a committee of trustees devoted to the library or, commonly, through the president, who serves as a superior officer for the librarian as well as for the faculty. If a faculty committee exists it is advisory. It is made up of colleagues of the librarian and could not appropriately seek to direct his work, since he and the members of the faculty obtain their appointments from the same source.

The college librarian prepares and justifies the budget for his library. Although the president of the college may approve or reduce the estimates, the librarian appears in a majority of cases to be favorably situated for getting his budget passed by the trustees, and especially so where there is a committee for the library within the board.

The university library is legally bound by the constitutional provisions, charters, articles of incorporation, and general and special laws applicable to the university as a whole, as well as by judicial interpretations of these instruments. A few state university libraries are specifically provided for in legislative enactments spelling out the basis of support, powers, status, and responsibilities of the director of the library, and the various activities of units of the library. A look at several university organization charts shows that the librarian reports directly to the president of the university, who represents the library before the board of trustees, just as he does for other units. There are some trustee library committees, here and there, who meet with the librarian to work out policy, budget, personnel, and future projects—a few Ivy League universities have these. The usual pattern, however, is the president-director relationship.

The librarian depends on the president to argue his need for funds, in pace with the growth of the university. If the president is not library-minded and soft-pedals the request for money, however, the library director is stopped from submitting his requirements to the board. In the few cases where a trustee library committee exists the librarian is able to convey his message to the whole board through it. No instance

has been found of a university librarian taking his case directly to the board and presenting the library's situation there in order to get favorable budgetary action.¹

Mercurial changes occurring in every phase of the educational field make it natural to assume that today's trustees of American private and public educational institutions will have been drawn from enlightened alumni groups in the case of private colleges, and from similarly qualified citizens and alumni in public colleges. Today's trustees can be expected to be experienced in techniques of gathering funds for their respective institutions, whether private or public. They are conversant with administrative principles, having applied these in other organizations before joining other practiced hands on their boards. Composition of the controlling bodies is not as conservative as in the past. Members of the boards of private colleges try to induce alumni to contribute generously to meet the challenge of today's programs. State college and university trustees may do all in their power to extract from their state legislatures raises in the annual appropriations to meet the costs for a first class education—not forgetting libraries.

Next, a look at today's special library. An authentic definition of it has been a "special collection, serving a special clientele, and using special methods for the purpose."² It is represented by libraries serving businesses, government agencies, large industries, and general research in humanities or in science and technology. The library in business and industry can be a part of research, sales, or manufacturing divisions, and sometimes all three.

The head of a special library is selected because he possesses subject knowledge that enables him to work directly in the field he serves and has in addition a familiarity with library techniques. He is autonomous in the operation of his segment of the corporate or company structure. Once the library is established funds are supplied according to the results produced. The librarian reports to one of the key executives, in the echelon of command to which the library's activity most applies. Large corporations are often lavish in their financial outlay for libraries. The librarian has *carte blanche* in the purchase of materials to build the special collection, so long as they contribute to the purposes of the firm. Small companies, and those in highly specialized fields, may assemble strong collections, but confine their selection of materials to the limited compass of their operations.

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educated and trained men representing stockholders as a matter of course, and as far as concern for the library goes the interests likewise of higher officers and employees. This controlling body is aware of the value of the library, and that the service of the library is rendered at a cost low in comparison with other outlays in its business or industry.

There are special libraries devoted to the advancement of science, technology, or medicine that are not expected to show a monetary profit. Endowed, they seek further human knowledge in the above named fields with social and scientific contributions. Special libraries in the humanities and social sciences, on the other hand, attempt to help in overtaking cultural lags and catching up with technological progress.

The governing bodies of these private or semi-public endowed or partially endowed special libraries probably have undergone less change than those of libraries of other sorts. They commonly are self-perpetuating, and in order to carry out avowed aims they continue to be careful whom they name to sit with them upon removal of a member by resignation or death. What is affecting them particularly now is their serious financial problem. Returns from investments are low, and few large personal fortunes are in sight to provide new endowments or to assist in other ways in maintaining the services. A current example is the John Crerar Library in Chicago. It may turn out that municipalities, counties, and states will be asked to take over and sustain the operation of such libraries. This might be after the manner of the consolidating of private collections into the New York Public Library a half century back, although reasons other than fiscal ones were factors there.

The most noticeable developments related to governing bodies in recent years seem to have taken place in the public library field. Rapid growth of cities in the postwar years has contributed to this, and in the general overhauling of municipal affairs the library has come in for a fair share of attention. Where the public has awakened to the need for better library resources changes have been made in the composition of the boards and in their approach to library problems.

Even as late as ten years ago it was common to find the usual public library board composed of social leaders and the old leaders of community opinion. They were active on other local bodies—civic, religious, and commercial. In a rare case a board member was able to con-

tribute all of his talents to the benefit of the library. In most cases he was active in too many directorates and gave too little to all, including that of the library. Many library boards had inert and disinterested trustees—ultra-conservative, penurious with what little funds the library got from its appropriating authorities, and hesitant to ask for more lest added taxes fall upon themselves as property-owners, business proprietors, and manufacturers.

Today's boards more adequately represent a cross-section of the community. The members belong to community pressure groups such as taxpayer's bodies, parent and teacher associations, adult education groups, and labor and management people—all making themselves heard and felt on governmental issues and operations, including library service. Men still outnumber women as trustees. White Caucasians predominate but there are signs of a broader representation by members of racial, and comparably also of religious minorities, on big city boards in the north, northeast, mid-west and Pacific coast states. Representatives of labor are appearing just as they are appearing on other civic boards. The usual age of trustees today is 45 to 60 whereas ten years or so ago it was 55 to 65. Occupationally lawyers still are more numerous than any others, followed by businessmen and manufacturers, with miscellaneous vocations such as those of teachers, small shop-keepers, plumbers, and housewives in third position; and with persons engaged in financial occupations such as those of banking, savings and loan associations, and accounting making up the rest. Although they may need tutelage from time to time, incumbents generally are more alert to the aims, plans, and potential of libraries than once was customary. As representative and public-spirited citizens they still may tend to spread their energies thinly over various civic enterprises, but nevertheless, they are apt to be conscious of their responsibilities, reasonably able, and conversant in some measure with the problems of administration.

For the most part, power of appointment still rests with the appropriating authorities, such as municipal, county, or school district governing bodies. There are a few elected boards. In the majority of American cities and towns the mayor and councilmen appoint the board members. Where the city-manager-council form of government exists the city manager appoints the board member with the approval of the council.³

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happenings which bear significantly upon it? For public libraries at least, some seem to merit mention. Two may be cited.

One of the dramatic changes appearing today is the impact of the city manager upon the library where the manager-council form of government exists. The trend toward this plan of government has implications for the library which cannot be ignored. The objects of the city manager, while laudatory, are sometimes in conflict with the interests of the library, and the means by which he carries out his program can be detrimental.

For example, in attempting to coordinate the departments, a city manager may persuade various independent board units of government, such as those of the library, parks, police and fire departments, and streets and sanitation divisions, on the over-all efficiency and economy of controlling all city functions centrally. He has succeeded in many instances. Once that occurs the librarian becomes a department head and dependent upon the manager's program. The library board signs away its existence, and as a sop it is designated as "advisory." In some instances it has become disinterested, since it has lost power to aid in library development, and fades away leaving the lonely librarian to fend for himself. The library ceases to be autonomous and becomes in effect institution-sponsored, subject to the manager's plans for all city departments. If the manager is not library-minded and there is no vocal outcry by library users, en masse or by way of their elected councilmen, the library will gradually be neglected as the city manager hews away at its funds to suit his over-all budgetary plans.

The city manager, like the proverbial camel that gets his nose under the flap of the tent, may soon be completely inside the library, taking over other responsibilities carried ordinarily by the librarian. He sets up personnel classification systems and civil service is instituted. Then when the librarian states his personnel needs—clerical, custodial, and professional, the manager seines the labor market and tries to come up with qualified people. In time he finds one, two, or three qualified candidates for a particular position. Of these three, screened by the manager's office as qualified, the librarian can pick the one that suits him. As a result the librarian has no actual choice, that having been taken out of his hands by the manager.*

Although one of the essentials in library administration is that the librarian be able freely to appoint, transfer, demote, or remove personnel for just causes, subject to approval by the board, he can not do these things when he becomes entangled in red tape, and is hamp-

ered by civil service rules and regulations. He is obligated to carry "dead-wood" personnel until these individuals decide to move on through their own initiative. To make matters worse a manager prefers a stabilized working force, and may be disturbed by a high turnover of personnel because of processing and severance costs and its effect upon his record in office.

Library administration requires that library purchasing be strictly a managerial function, although not a city manager's. Such buying is seriously hampered by inclusion in an over-all city purchasing plan, since libraries have needs that are not met adequately by the uniform buying practices likely to be advocated by the city manager. Free access to the book markets, printing firms, and makers of machines and equipment adapted to library use is impeded by the restrictions of the purchasing agent's office.

For example, a particular brand of typewriter is needed to do a certain library job. The purchasing agent cannot find the price he deems reasonable and advises the librarian to accept a standard typewriter offered on a lower bid. The librarian yields lest he lose the opportunity to get a typewriter at all. Once he has compromised he will be asked to do so on other items. The purchase of books raises the bugaboo of consolidating buying from a limited number of jobbers to simplify bookkeeping. This may simplify accounting for the central purchasing office, but not for the library. It results in red tape and slow delivery, frequently insuring that today's best sellers will be received too late to satisfy library patrons. The situation becomes ridiculous when rules require that requests go to one principal jobber for titles the librarian knows can only be bought directly from the publisher.

In one manager-city the librarian had not only to report to the manager but to meet regularly with the city auditor to work out his proposed budget. The conferences involved advice from the auditor on what would be propitious, to aid the city manager's plans, in presenting the budget to the city council.

It would appear that a librarian in a city-manager situation, having been relieved of his former duties, could devote most of his time to purely professional work. He really finds he ought to have a desk at the city hall near the manager and his aides, in order to clear a thousand and one matters that arise in the operation of his department.

Occasionally a librarian has the rare experience of working with a library-minded city manager, who desires the library to be of as much

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service as the parks and recreational departments and who aids in getting a fair share of the budget for the library. Librarians who have been so fortunate may not agree regarding the potential perils of the system.

Now a look at what is going on in county, regional, and state libraries, which serve both city and rural areas. A report from the Idaho State Library Board given at an annual trustee institute in Oregon in 1957 is an excellent example of what an active state organization can accomplish.

The report demonstrates how the trustees of one state library met decreased appropriations by building up political pressure on both the Republic and Democratic party organizations. Library support naturally is bound up with politics and state legislators determine whether a state library is to be robust or to starve. If a state library is weak, a result is that leadership is lacking. So in Idaho legislators were made aware of plans for support through the effort of active trustee groups in backing up the Friends of the Library Council of the state. Backing the play were the League of Women Voters, the Parent and Teacher Congress, the state education association, labor and patriotic organizations, state and county party committeemen, and the precinct captains.

Under the leadership of the state library board a member of the Friends of the Library Council in each county contacted candidates for the offices of mayor, county commissioner, state representative, and senate. These persons were apprised of the local, county, and state library needs, and the citizens who represented the Friends of the Library Council learned how the candidates felt about the library service issue. In turn they told the candidates what they expected in the line of governmental support.

By sheer luck the workers for the Friends of the Library Council at the state capital called upon the wives of two legislators, then persuaded them to act as advisors in their home counties. These key wives mapped out a political course of action for the Council and followed through with personal contacts. They happened also to be the presidents of the two largest Republican and Democratic clubs in the state.

The state had a Republican House and a Democratic Senate. To achieve the goal of increased state library appropriations the library board had to have friends on both sides of the aisle as well as each side of the capitol rotunda. A happy result was evidenced in almost

equal support from the two parties—the margin of victory was narrow, actually—in the appropriation committees and later on the floor of the legislature.

Having won their opening round, state-wide practice of art in politics began. A nucleus of Friends of the Library Council in each county is now receiving guidance from the extension department of the state library. The advisers, the legislator's wives, and others are serving as the axle of the wheel in each county, and the spokes are the representatives of organizations who will carry back to their groups plans made at the Council. The Friends of the Library Council now plans to keep in touch with every state senator and representative, conscious that the future growth and progress of their libraries depend upon politics. The example of what can be done by an active state trustee's group could well serve as a guide in other states facing similar problems.⁵

County libraries, as a type of public library, have made great strides in the trend toward multiple county and regional library growth. Trustee action has enabled some libraries to join, to expand, and to service areas too poor to stand alone. Action in this field has at times been slowed by unwillingness of local units to give up their sovereignty to a larger agency, but the trend is hopeful. State library demonstration programs are breaking down such barriers.

Today's governing authorities, in all types of libraries, are aware of and working hard on the problems that beset their particular libraries. That is made evident by the many new library buildings, and additions to present plans, springing up in cities, towns, rural areas, and on campuses all over the country. Their competence and understanding have been broadened and sharpened, through contact with fellow-trustees, and through greater participation in state and national library associations. They are becoming intimate with the purposes and activities of their particular libraries. Working with and receiving impetus from their librarians, individual boards are acting decisively on programs to strengthen library service in their communities. The future looks bright.

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Executive-Board Relations in Public Libraries

HAROLD L. HAMILL

THE PURPOSE OF THIS ARTICLE is to determine what trends are observable in the relations of library executives to governing authorities in public libraries. Whenever the term "governing body" or "governing authority" has been used in library literature, the assumption has almost always been that the reference is to the board of trustees, except in the very few manager-type cities and counties. Whether this definition is still adequate is open to considerable question in the light of recent developments.

The merits of board control as against direct control by a manager or other single executive need hardly be a part of this discussion, since these arguments have been aired thoroughly by librarians and political scientists for the past half-century. The consensus is always that, despite logical arguments made against it by some public administration experts, the library board is probably here to stay. Board government is almost unanimously defended by the librarians who work under it, even though some express disenchantment with boards in practice and enumerate the difficulties encountered in dealing with them.¹

In libraries governed by boards, that is administrative boards as distinguished from advisory boards, there has been general agreement among librarians and library writers that the board's role is policy-making and that it is the librarian's responsibility to suggest a program to the board, and to administer it, once adopted. No official or acknowledged change in this basic relationship can be discerned, except as some authors have assumed or even pointed out that there are differences between the boards of large libraries and the boards of small libraries in the degree to which they may enter into the actual administration of the libraries.

While this clear distinction between the policy-making function of the board and the administrative function of the librarian is seldom really

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challenged in theory, there are numerous indications that in actual practice the picture may be somewhat clouded. As Oliver Garceau points out, "[This formula] betokens . . . the state of mind of librarians who have been struggling to establish themselves as responsible executive officers in their own shops. . . . But . . . in practice librarians are inclined to load the board with detail and carry on policy pretty much by themselves, leading the board from step to step."²

One point where practice greatly varies is the degree to which respective powers and responsibilities are formally defined in writing. As Marian G. Gallagher³ has said, although the division of administrative and policy-making duties by the librarian and board has universal acceptance, the question of its legality seldom arises—and it is certainly fortunate that it does not. For, as against the board, whose powers are clearly set forth in statute or charter, the librarian seldom has legally defined powers or legally defined duties, except in cases where civil service regulations may specify them. Such powers as he exercises are usually not by statute but by delegation, often unwritten, from the board, and his role in the library's management is based on sufferance. A good example of a clear delineation of the respective functions of board and librarian is provided in the 1957 *Annual Report* of the Board of Trustees of the Newark Public Library.⁴ In that library the Board's By-Laws set forth the librarian's responsibilities in explicit terms.

A frequently encountered indication of improper division of powers, in spite of lip service given to the board's traditional policy-making function, is the prevalence of standing board committees devoted to such clearly administrative activities as buildings, supplies and finance, personnel, books and magazines, and others. As excellent and recent a manual as Marian M. Winsor's *A Handbook for Library Trustees*⁵ suggested such standing committees, although C. B. Joeckel⁶ in 1935 and Anna G. Hall⁷ in 1937 agreed in seriously questioning their value, and in 1943, E. W. and John McDiarmid were citing committees as a device "to enable the board to do more efficiently things it should not do."⁸ Garceau in 1949 reiterated the arguments against committee organization of boards, characterizing most committees as "largely perfunctory, if not wholly defunct."⁹

Various devices can be employed to good purpose in routinizing librarian and board relations to save time and to prevent friction. Most of these are discussed both by Miss Hall¹⁰ and by Mrs. Winsor.¹¹ They include agenda written up and mailed in advance, or at least

presented at the beginning of a meeting; mailed minutes; and a reasonably fixed order of procedure. It is obvious from perusal of recent surveys which detail confused or unhappy board-librarian relations that the excellent advice available is not always followed.

In spite of the virtues of law and order, from this writer's experience and from discussion with other operating librarians the conclusion seems inescapable that the actual working relationships between librarian and board often depend more on local conditions and personalities, than on either law or machinery. The new American Library Association standards, *Public Library Service*, stress that policy establishment is the joint responsibility of the chief librarian, his staff, and the library board.¹² In the ideal situation the librarian studies and develops policy with the aid of his staff, recommends it to and tests it on his board; the board adopts or modifies his recommendations in the light of its lay approach, and the librarian carries them out. The librarian who so contributes to his board's understanding that policy determination becomes a truly shared function is most likely to find himself with a board that is neither tyrant, rubber stamp, nor seesaw.

It has appeared that there is little in library literature to challenge the traditional division of powers and responsibilities between librarian and board. In the face of this unanimity, it may be somewhat daring to suggest that no student of library government has yet tackled the most important current factor affecting board-librarian relationships. This element is in fact so basic that it may require a complete redefinition of the term "governing authority," which once clearly meant the library board.

Actually, "governing authority" today has a much broader meaning. Prominently figuring in the real government of a library, in addition to the board and the elected policy-making officials, may be a city or county administrative officer and a complex of city hall and county staff agencies and controls, mainly legal and fiscal. As a result, subtle but drastic changes in the relationship of the library executive to his board have taken place, and many new connections have arisen with authorities whose significance is little acknowledged in library literature. The movement is toward multiplication of these new relationships and intensification of their importance.

The McDiarmids took note of four major trends in public administration which seemed destined to play a significant role in determining library-governmental relations of the future: (1) concentration of authority and responsibility for city administration in a single execu-

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tive; (2) installation of modern budget and finance procedures; (3) growth of civil service and progressive personnel practices; (4) growth of centralized purchasing.¹³ They then ask a serious question: "Can the library continue to enjoy the large measure of freedom from central administrative control it has had in the past?"¹⁴ The answer to that question has proved to be a definite negative, not so much because of the actual increase of single-executive cities and counties, as because of the installation of city- or county-wide budget procedures and uniform personnel practices.

The library climate which has fostered this trend requires description. First of all, the professionalization of library administration, most strongly evidenced, of course, in the larger libraries but filtering down through the years into smaller and smaller systems, has tended to hasten the withdrawal of library boards from their inclination actually to administer libraries. Professionalization of librarians has paralleled a similar process in other fields of public administration, and most significantly in personnel and fiscal administration. The professionals within these fields have come to expect the librarian to be well grounded in the principles and practices of public administration and to speak a common language, with which the library board is often not conversant. Withdrawal of boards from the library's special domain of book selection (except in cases of great controversy, when they can still be most helpful) began much earlier, of course. Now the mastery of personnel management techniques, and the dawn of the machine age in technical services, require a librarian to develop new facets of administrative personality which a lay board can hardly expect to follow in full.

A second element is the growth in complexity of government agencies, the expansion of public payrolls, and the resultant demand for scientific management and cost control, particularly on the part of organized taxpayer groups. The sequel has been the emergence of the intermediary—usually the budget bureau or administrative office—as an expert staff agency which stands between the library and the political and legislative officers.

At this point should be mentioned another extremely important element to which not enough attention has yet been paid, but which, it is to be hoped, will have a potent effect in the future. This is the development of standards of library service, stressing quality and hence tending to offset over-emphasis on the cost approach which bedevils many libraries today. The standards also advocate fewer

and larger systems of library service. As units become larger, more professionalization of administration is likely to occur.

The fact that library literature gives so little recognition to the library's place in the new complex of governing authorities leads this observer to suggest that a reappraisal of the library's position in government is needed. Garceau, although he wrote only nine years ago, may be excused for giving scant attention to this aspect of city-library relations, because most of the more significant developments probably have come since 1949. In his summary of the Public Library Inquiry, R. D. Leigh reported boards are largely autonomous, but recognized "some regulation by the general municipal officers in charge of personnel, accounting, and purchases."¹⁵ It is somewhat startling to realize that even in 1950 there was so little foreshadowing of the important role that these extra-library agencies would shortly assume. Even Mrs. Winsor, writing in 1955, while she briefly described the library's relations with the finance officer in budget preparation, did not indicate that the role of the board or librarian was greatly affected.¹⁶ In today's practice, the range runs from the librarian without a board, who deals directly and solely with the city manager, through librarians who are involved in varying degrees with staff agencies, to the one who is responsible to a board still autonomous in every legal sense, but with powers abridged by the factors already noted.

It may be useful to detail some of the changes in relationship between librarian and board occasioned by the fact that libraries have been drawn increasingly into the policy and procedures of city management. Discussion with library executives has failed to discover one who does not acknowledge this inescapable trend. Like it or not, they say, the library is being drawn into the political arena.

Fiscal control is the area where the hand of the intermediary lies most heavily. The rise of the fiscal expert, the budgetary analyst, has coincided with the rise in number and strength of schools of public administration throughout the country. To the library this has meant a drastic change from the day not so long ago when the library board was supreme and the librarian spent whatever money was available pretty much as he and the board decided. In the new era the budget officer tends to deal directly with the librarian, not with or through the board. The structure within which the librarian must work is prescribed by the city, not the board. As long ago as 1943 the McDiarmids noted the marked trend toward closer city scrutiny of detailed budget requests.¹⁷ It is unlikely that they could have predicted

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then the ironclad framework that would envelop the library's financial procedures within the next fifteen years. The furthest reaching development to date in the attempt to measure and meet the library's financial needs statistically is the performance budget, so far employed by relatively few libraries. Librarians working within its framework inevitably find their prerogatives of choice and emphasis seriously hampered. It has generally proved to be an alarmingly imperfect instrument, which at worst can place a mechanical limitation upon the library's program.

Paradoxically enough, instead of being an ogre, the budget officer can be and often is the library's friend and ally. In many cities he is the only one in a position to make a positive critical overview of the library's needs in relation to the needs of other city departments and to present them objectively and forthrightly to legislative officials during the inevitable annual contest for the taxpayer's dollar. It is possible that his is as fair an approach as can be achieved for an agency such as the library, where quality, not quantity, is the most important factor in service.

In the light of all this, it becomes apparent that although the board is still nominally in control of policy, it really cannot exercise such control except when policy is not firmly grounded in finance. Book selection is a good example of a field where the traditional relationship of board and librarian can have full sway. But such questions as "Shall the library sponsor a television program?" "Shall the library circulate recordings?" "Shall the library establish a business department?" are no longer matters for the board's decision purely in terms of community needs. Now the budget officer often makes the decision as to whether the library may include the money needed for them in its budget request at all. In the end, the determining factor in establishing any new service policy, or even a major change, lies with the city's appropriating body, and the question to be decided becomes not "Does the city need this service?" but, "Will the library be permitted to ask the city council to appropriate the money for it?"

While most boards still enjoy on paper the powers that they have always had, actually there has been a quiet and gradual usurpation of these powers, particularly in the west and in the larger cities where budgeting offices have flourished most healthily. Public libraries where the board is paramount still exist, but their number lessens steadily as professionalization of librarians and growth of financial controls are extended. The result is that the board acts more and more as a re-

viewing body, giving approval after negotiations between the librarian and the budget authority have been completed. The board finds it is able to set policy only within the rather rigid bounds of city policy, especially fiscal policy. Thus the heart of the working relationship between librarian and board becomes more dependent on the total local situation than on law or even on personal relationship and attitude. The effect of all this is that boards clearly labeled "administrative" are many times in effect "advisory."

While fiscal controls have developed to a degree of overwhelming importance in the library's administration, personnel techniques likewise have greatly advanced, particularly during and since World War II. Either through civil service or through their own self-administered personnel systems, libraries have been falling into line with currently accepted practice in the important fields of examination, selection, in-service training, promotion, working conditions, and employee welfare and security. Witnesses to this fact are the establishment of personnel offices in libraries, the adoption of rules, classification plans, salary schedules, personnel manuals, and training devices. Few would quarrel with the desirability of such developments. It is important to note, however, that they do tend to remove personnel administration from the immediate direction of the principal administrator and from individual decision by the board. Despite this loss of personal contact, their prevalence makes for more sensible ground rules and fairer treatment of staff.

One important result of uniform personnel procedure is that it retains and strengthens the library's traditional freedom from political favoritism. Moreover, it protects the staff, including the head librarian, from action based on the whim, prejudice, or self-interest of board members, since the board must justify dismissals or other punitive measures on defensible grounds. There have been, and even recently, instances where clashes between a librarian and his board resulted in spectacular fireworks, although these contrast sharply with the generally favorable situation. The trend, however, is due more to the growing conformity with accepted personnel practice than to the legal security of the librarian's position. As Mrs. Gallagher has pointed out, differences are usually resolved "not by court action, but by negotiation or a parting of company."¹⁸

Having less bearing on the working relationships of librarians and boards, but considerable effect on actual administration, is the tendency of budget and efficiency bureaus to look critically at libraries'

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internal processes, particularly in the technical services of ordering, cataloging, binding, circulation, and duplicating. Although most gains so far in these fields have actually been made by practicing librarians rather than by efficiency agencies or even by commercial manufacturers, the motivation for such has often come from central staff agencies and has been based on financial considerations rather than service improvement. The result of replacing people with machines, sadly enough from the librarian's point of view, has often been reduction of staff rather than its utilization in more productive activity.

It has been shown that the librarian has come to work in an increasingly complex of relationships with his board, with administrative or budget officer, and with a host of other staff agencies. This is a long way from the day when a librarian was in control of the whole situation in his library, including in some cases the board itself, and when he acted without access to outside advice and responsibility to external direction and control. The early library administrative fathers were often willful and opinionated, exercising strong initiative at every turn of their libraries' operations. Today the librarian finds himself circumscribed by a network of agencies, oftentimes with conflicting interests and attitudes. Incidentally, it may be noted here that his recommendations to his board today are much more likely to be the result of consultation with his staff than to be based on his own personal inclination or thinking, although a discussion of democratic administration is outside the bounds of this article.

The relationship between the librarian and the library's new complex of "governing authorities" clearly now becomes three-way: librarian, board, and a mass of city officers and agencies. Compatibility as a factor in their relationships is equally three-dimensional. In the library's relationship with the over-all policy-setting elected officials, i.e., mayor and council, or supervisors, differences can be argued out in terms of specific issues as a result of the budget officer's intermediary function. The councilman looking at a problem from his own "ward-interest" approach is met with a presentation of facts from an over-all city point of view and his parochial attitude is glaringly revealed.

These relationships can always remain calm and passive if the library is content to stand still or is retrenching. But libraries have a way of needing more and more money if they are to maintain their unique role in the community, and to expand their service and diversify their programs as their place in the communications picture requires. To secure revenues, the concurrence of the city's financial agency is

essential. During a period of high and increasing prosperity the going has not been too rough. But in a period of depression or financial stress, accompanied as it is bound to be by great increase in the use of libraries, disharmony between the library and the budget office may well arise. For in such a situation it probably will not be easy to reach agreement as to where economies can be made. Issues of public service are likely to be severely subordinated to cost considerations, and the overly-statistical approach to library service, which has not been a serious detriment in good times, can become a powerful weapon against high quality. The performance budget is particularly unhelpful in making decisions at such a time. This is a situation where the library board may have an opportunity to re-exercise its powers, both legal and moral, to see that quality is not sacrificed to cost expediency.

Emergence of new library standards during the past decade is the most significant development in putting service in proper relation to cost. The Public Library Inquiry has indicated that the library's program has lagged behind the development of mass communication. Both it and *Public Library Service* have approached the problem of financing libraries from the point of view of service programs rather than from that of past and present costs. Together they serve as a welcome antidote to the over-emphasis on cost. In their concern with the relationship of libraries of varying sizes to the total picture of library service, the standards presented in *Public Library Service* are a triply harmonizing device. They aid the librarian in presenting his needs both to boards and city officials by spelling out essentials of service. They reinforce the traditional definition of the respective responsibilities of librarian and board. They serve, if carried out with respect to the establishment of systems, to reduce discrepancies in service due to the differences between large and small libraries.

The present paper indicates how the relations of librarians, both with their boards and with the complex of officials and staff agencies which now have a finger in the library pie, have been strongly affected by the great growth of government and the demand for economy and efficiency, the increasing professionalization of library administration, and a parallel professionalizing of fiscal control, personnel practices, and other aspects of public administration. It points out, too, that in spite of these important developments, library literature has little to report on the changing role of the board or the new significance of

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the term "governing authority of the library." Again, this author suggests that here is a fruitful field for critical study.

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Present-Day Public Library Executives

R. RUSSELL MUNN

LINCOLN STEFFENS, in reporting an incident in which he was involved with President Woodrow Wilson, quotes him as follows:

"An executive is a man of action. An intellectual—such as you and I," he smiled—"an intellectual is inexecutive. In an executive job we are dangerous, unless we are aware of our limitations and take measures to stop our everlasting disposition to think, to listen, to—not act. I made up my mind long ago, when I got into my first executive job, to open my mind for a while, hear everybody who came to me with advice, information—what you will—then, some day, the day when my mind felt like deciding, to shut it up and act. My decision might be right; it might be wrong. No matter. I would take a chance and do—something."¹

Most library executives will be thankful that they do not have to decide whether or not to take their country into war, but they will recognize the problem. Librarianship is a learned profession, and the library executive is, or should be, well educated and well read. He has an obligation to his patrons and to his staff to be continually building on his cultural background. He should belong to the intellectual elite of his community. At the same time his chief role is to be a man of action, who makes decisions and who gets things done.

There are few executives today, in public libraries at least, who profess to great scholarship. Those with advanced degrees in subject fields appear to be rare. Most librarians, however, whether they are heads or not, make a habit of extensive reading, and although this may be on a broad rather than a specialized base the result is a substantial accumulation of knowledge. The library executive, therefore, should be and usually is an example in his community, of the thoughtful, well-informed citizen.

Does the necessity for learning impair his ability to execute? Is he
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in danger of being trapped, like *Mamlet*, between thought and action? It would seem to be, as President Wilson found it, a matter of discipline. The greater likelihood is that a library executive will neglect his reading rather than his administrative responsibilities.

What does a library executive do? Although generally removed from all the processes connected with the collection and the preparation of books and making them or their contents available to the public, no effort seems necessary to convince board, staff, and public that he is busy. Yet there is little in the literature on just how his time is occupied. In this paper the executives of public libraries chiefly are in view, and the comments relate particularly to their field. It is hoped, however, that much which is said is pertinent by analogy to the heads of school, college, and special libraries.

One of the executive's primary duties is to plan. Libraries, by necessity, are in a continual state of development, and there can be no orderly progress without this. The library chief first must have an intimate knowledge of and contact with the planning activities in the community itself. Population trends, land use and urban renewal, industrial and business development, street and highway construction—all have a bearing on proposals for library extension and improvement. Similarly, plans being developed by educational, cultural, and welfare agencies must be closely followed.

In these days when communities are expanding with almost explosive force it is important to know the people most responsible. As Floyd Hunter² and others have pointed out, every community has a small group of individuals who determine the directions in which the area will go. Rarely occupying any elective public offices, these leaders exercise a great deal of influence on those who do, and thus wield considerable power over the public purse. It is important for the library executive to know who they are and, if possible, to gain their confidence.

To do this he must himself become a civic leader, although at a level somewhat lower than the top. While he will not be directly involved in the planning for adequate highways, streets, sewers, and public safety services, and will be only partially concerned with that for schools and other cultural agencies, he must recognize that these require public knowledge and understanding. Such knowledge and understanding come from education, and education is the librarian's business. Hence the library executive should realize that the development of his library is part of an over-all community plan, and that by

participating in the development of the whole he is furthering that of his own institution.

In order to participate, he must be included in the committee structure of the community, which follows from demonstrating an active interest and a willingness to work. Serving on committees and boards with other civic-minded persons broadens the librarian's acquaintance, enhances his local standing, and often can provide many opportunities for promoting the interests of the library itself.

Active participation in community planning is the only proper background for library planning. What is projected should derive from the application of accepted library standards to the local situation, with due consideration of the ways and means of attaining desired goals. These goals will include, primarily, the adequate provision of books, staff, and buildings. The inclusion of trustees and staff in these discussions is essential.⁵

With clear and specific plans, long and short term, the library executive's next concern is to obtain the finances for their realization. Sources of funds and their control vary widely, but one factor is constant: requests for money must be justified. It is the executive's job to marshal the facts and figures for this purpose, to get the support of his board or committee, and to present a budget that is reasonable and convincing. It is most important in this connection to have comparable figures from similar libraries and to view them in their relation to accepted national standards. The lack of current comparative statistics has long been a handicap at this point, and it is hoped that the deficiency will be corrected soon by the Library Administration Division of the American Library Association.

The item in the budget which usually requires the most vigorous defense is that of salaries. Here the natural reluctance of trustees and public officials to contribute further to inflationary trends appears. It must be pointed out with all possible emphasis that the quality of the entire library operation depends on the quality of the staff, that salary rates for librarians are determined by national conditions rather than local, and that it is a matter of simple justice to reward employees in accordance with their training, skill, and competence.

With three-quarters of his budget given to salaries it is necessary for the library executive to devote a considerable amount of time to recruiting or attracting adequate personnel. Employment of clerks, janitors, and pages may be left to others, and in the largest libraries a personnel department may carry out much of the detail work; but

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most library executives cannot avoid the extensive correspondence and interviewing necessary to the maintenance of a strong professional staff, nor the necessity for an intimate knowledge of the performance of each individual member of that staff.

Much time is necessarily involved in the assignment of personnel to places of maximum usefulness. A simple change may involve a number of conferences—those necessary to make the proper decision and those required to affect the transfers without undue friction. The problems of planning staff meetings and maintaining in-service training can also occupy much attention.

Although the head librarian cannot delegate responsibility for decisions, he should consult his staff in all major policy matters. Committees can do much toward creating a sense of such participation, and assure greater support for the policies or decisions which may result from their deliberations. In all staff contacts the chief should remember that his associates are not just employees—they are people, beset with the usual assortment of problems, personal and otherwise. In dealing with them he has to reconcile a decent respect for their opinions, feelings and desires, and his primary responsibility for the efficient expenditure of the public funds which go into their salaries. Fair dealing is not only essential morally, it is requisite to their morale.

The other major item in the library budget is that designated for books and other materials. The extent to which the chief executive will be involved in the processes of selecting, classifying, cataloging, and preparing books for public use will vary widely according to the size of the library. Regardless of the size of his institution or the extent of his other manifold responsibilities, however, the library executive cannot escape the necessity of keeping informed and up-to-date in the world of books. This will entail homework involving the extensive burning of midnight electricity. He cannot read all the new books, but he or his staff should read most of the significant titles which are being added. If he expects his colleagues to devote many hours of off-duty time to this he can do no less than set a good example. The quality of the book collection will be a direct reflection of his achievement in this respect. The distribution and control of the book funds to the various departments and branches, in which the executive must assume major responsibility, requires at least a general knowledge of all subject fields and a sense of the demands and interests of the public.

In addition to all this the executive must keep abreast of the professional literature which comes to his desk so regularly. This is a

necessary part of the continual study which must go on to improve library techniques. He constantly must be examining ways of cutting costs and reducing the preoccupation of the professional staff with routine tasks, thus freeing them for the creative aspects of librarianship.

In the pioneer days of library development, executives were noted for their inventiveness in the development of library methods, many of which are now called routines. Dewey, Cutter, Dana, and the rest had to be resourceful because there were no trails to follow. The executive of today, in building on their work, has the great advantage of utilizing the research facilities of such great corporations as International Business Machines, Eastman Kodak, Addressograph-Multigraph, and many others which are ready and willing to help him work out the most efficient ways of carrying forward technical and lending processes. Many devices developed for business can be applied with little change to the needs of the library. Although much has been accomplished toward this, the rapidly mounting flood of printed matter to be dealt with makes it clear that there is much more to do. Where the recent experiments in the application of electronics will lead is impossible to foresee, but it is significant that librarians are directly involved in this area of research, and that a librarian, Verner Clapp, has been selected to head the newly created Council on Library Resources, Inc., one of whose functions is to study the "development of applications of scientific techniques and mechanisms to library procedures."⁴

In these days of expansion in all directions it will be the exceptional library executive who is not directly concerned in the planning or construction of a new building or buildings. This means a substantial challenge, requiring much study and creative thought. A building involves a large expenditure of public funds and will last for many years, probably beyond the life span of the librarian and architects who determine the form it takes. Mistakes once made will persist with the building. The library executive will, of course, have a major part in deciding the arrangement of rooms, shelving, study areas, and other facilities. He should exert much influence in the selection of the site. The architect's job is to translate the physical needs into a structure which is both efficient and beautiful.

Assuming that the technical aspects of the job can be worked out jointly by any competent architect and librarian, what about aesthetics? Architecture is classified by Dewey as a fine art, but not all architects are artists. On what seems a proper assumption that a library should set the highest possible standard for the community in the beauty of

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its exterior proportions and interior appointments, it is important to select architects and interior designers who can help it meet this standard. The library executive should make every effort to achieve this and to train himself to talk the language of his collaborators. He should be aware of the effects of different building materials, considering their texture and proper balance; of color and proportion; and of the value of applied art in relieving the monotony or sterility which can occur in contemporary architecture. He should have an appreciation of good landscape design. Plantings, both inside and outside the buildings, can contribute much to their appearance, and should be in accord with the basic ideas which formed them. Contemporary architecture requires planting quite different from that of traditional buildings, and often architects know little about this subject and nurserymen even less. It behooves the library executive to find someone who understands how a modern building should be landscaped.

With regard to public relations the executive's first responsibility is to see that service of high quality is rendered—competence and courtesy on the part of the staff are more important than newspaper space or radio time. In the job of winning public support there is no substitute for satisfied customers. However, there is much that the library executive must do in maintaining good relations with mass media. He should be on intimate terms with managing editors, editorial writers, reporters, and television and radio station officials. He should be able to recognize what they regard as news and see that they know about newsworthy occurrences in the library. Obviously he makes the most of his annual report, but what about the rest of the year? The best way to get attention is to make news and to exploit it fully. For example, the building of a new branch library can result in the following newspaper stories, usually with pictures: announcement of plans to build, selection of site, designation of architect, calls for bids, announcement of successful contractor, ground breaking, progress in construction, moving in, dedication ceremonies, and often a follow-up on resulting increases in registration and borrowing in the new building. Activities such as children's summer reading clubs, story hours, adult discussions, special displays related to city-wide programs, all make news. The extent that the library executive and his staff can participate in a wide variety of community activities is a direct credit to the library and its reputation. It almost goes without saying that he should be ready and able to speak publicly on the library and its activities.

One item which touches the library executive directly and imme-

diately is the occasional effort of some group or individual to censor or otherwise limit the access of fellow citizens to certain books or classes of books. The executive must be prepared in advance to face these attacks with a courageous and clear explanation of the library's policy. He should also see that his staff is well equipped to answer derogatory comments across the desk.

The public library executive is inevitably drawn into activities related to legislation. He must, therefore, become acquainted with his local representatives, particularly those on the state level. Knowledge of how legislation originates and is processed is essential. He should know how to mobilize public support for favorable bills or proposals, and for opposition to any which might be damaging to the library's interests. He should be ready at a moment's notice to appear before legislative committees, or to assist in the calling together of his local delegation to the legislature for a discussion of the measures under consideration.

As he will be concerned with legislation, he will also be involved from time to time with the laws themselves. Litigation involving the settlement of a valuable legacy left to the Akron Public Library implicated this writer over a period of three years. Other legal problems such as public liability, the buying and selling of real estate, performance bonds and mechanics liens, zoning regulations, contracts, and the interpretation of the library laws may involve the executive directly in legal action.

From the foregoing it will be seen that the successful library executive today must be a many-sided individual. From a sound formal and professional education he must be continually expanding his horizon through the daily reading of books and periodicals. As far as possible, he must be a leader in his community, a good citizen cooperating and working closely with those who have the responsibility for the operation and future development of the city. In his own job he will need to know something about business administration, city planning, accounting, law, architecture and building construction, horticulture, politics, journalism, public speaking, and perhaps most of all how to get along with people—trustees, staff, and public.

How does the present-day library executive measure up to such requirements? In the judgment of this contributor, very well indeed. The extraordinary development of libraries throughout the United States and many other parts of the world in recent years attests to the effectiveness of his leadership. Libraries have flourished against the

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competition for public attention of such mass media as films, radio, and television. While these media have tended to debase public taste and cater to the trivial and superficial desires of the public, libraries, along with schools, museums, colleges, and universities, have been able to oppose their influence by offering the best in books, films, and recordings. Furthermore, the quality of men and women who have entered the profession in recent years, and the high standards maintained by the schools for library training, offer a promising outlook for the future. To put our leaders of today on a scale and weigh them against the great library pioneers and what they achieved is an impossibility. One can venture the opinion, however, that history will show that present-day executives have measured up to their predecessors in a world whose tempo and complexity have vastly increased.

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Administrative Antennae in the Fifties

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TAKING THE TITLE ASSIGNED to it as symbolic, this paper deals with the flow of intelligence between a public library's constituents, governors, and staff on the one side, and its executive head on the other. The purpose is to explore the bearing of communication upon effective administration.

As employed here "communication" extends the idea of antennae to involve the innumerable "feeding-in-lines," from both internal and external sources, whereby the administrator gathers material on which to base decisions, and in turn transmits his findings as stimuli to action on the part of someone besides himself. It is thus readily seen that communication in relation to administration is a two-way proposition, composed of both gathering and disseminating information.

This concept is broad in scope because of its close relationship on one hand with over-all public relations programs and thus with the nature of a library's objectives and services, and on the other with scientific management. The topic not only furnishes the base for extensive investigation on public relations and internal communications in general, but offers numerous opportunities for graduate research in such subdivisions of these areas as concern librarianship especially. This article, therefore, is presented on the theory that even designation of problems is of some value to the administrator.

Two preliminary clarifications are essential in embarking on the subject as outlined above. First, the article must proceed on the basis of the experience of the writer and specifically in terms of his immediate experience as director of a large public library system. This is necessary because of the almost complete lack of treatment in an over-all fashion in the literature of librarianship, and the fragmentation of the topic in articles on the activities of individual libraries. However, in approaching the subject from a variety of angles, the

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conclusion has been reached that differences in communications problems in relation to the administration of libraries of various types and sizes are differences of degree rather than of basic nature. On this hypothesis, it appears that a look at the problems of the most complex unit, a large library system, would include, as well as go beyond, those of all other libraries. Secondly, the subject matter to be covered carries the hazard of frequently falling into the realm of the obvious. But the obvious has a significant place in establishing a point of departure into the unknown. The principle of jet propulsion demonstrated by Archimedes was accepted for centuries by scientists as obvious before its practical application in the jet aircraft engine, making possible development of the huge and speedy Boeing 707 jet transport. Also what is evident to one may not be so to another. And as a last shot, it is sometimes more difficult to pin down the obvious than the not so obvious.

In an era when the complexity of living makes tremendous demands on the individual in acquiring information as a basis for deciding personal courses of action, the role of the public library administrator takes on even more complex proportions in assimilating vast sources of material and directing the quality of service through the actions of the library's staff as extensions of himself. Accordingly, a look at areas in which effective communications are essential may be appropriate.

First and foremost is communication with a library's public, both actual and potential users. Intimate knowledge of community character and composition should be the administrator's basis for determining what library services are needed and for systematic evaluation of their effectiveness. Usually decisions on services are based on tradition and theory rather than on expression of needs. No doubt the failure of librarians to seek expressions of need systematically from their clientele is due to the magnitude of the task and the insufficiency of resources. As social scientists recognize, and as B. R. Berelson¹ documents in relation to libraries, there is no such thing as "the public" but a multitude of "publics." To gather from all of these "publics" opinions on what library services each requires would be an impossible task. And yet to provide the proper library service the administrator should have as much of this information as possible. This is not to say that he must obey all directives from the "publics" and fragment the library's services to meet the minute needs of all, which he knows is economically neither feasible nor sound, but rather take account of them in such a way that he may, in the words of the states-

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man "follow in order to lead." Such information, when organized and analyzed, can provide a firm foundation on which to base policies and long-range objectives for fulfilling the library's educational role in the community.

Over the years administrators of public libraries have indeed made some efforts to learn more of the thinking of their "publics," to gain a basis for revamping operations and services. Studies of patron satisfaction have appeared in print both as journal articles and as parts of surveys. Many of these have been self-surveys, and no doubt many more have been done than reported.

A study of this type, ascertaining who uses the library, for what purpose, and with what degree of satisfaction, was recently conducted by the New York Public Library, and although unpublished and not available to the profession it is probably the most significant to date. Undertaken in part to provide information on which to build public relations for an annual funds campaign, its findings have had great impact on administrative decisions. For example, the results sharply indicated the need for previously contemplated changes, such as simplification of catalogs, and demonstrated the importance of obvious items that are frequently overlooked or by-passed, such as clearer directories and signs. Its statistical summaries and correlations provide valuable guides for administrative purposes. But even more important in the long run than the statistics will be the case study summaries based on interviews. Because the New York Public Library investigation was made by a professional public relations firm, it offers an interesting departure from the more usual approach in which professional librarians act as surveyors.

On a broader scale in this field of library use are many studies of the past dealing with "who reads what," and with the success of libraries in supplying reading matter. Berelson in his Public Library Inquiry volume, *The Library's Public*² does a remarkable job of pulling together the data from these studies and synthesizing their findings with those of The Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan. As R. D. Leigh³ points out in his foreword, Berelson shows what a short distance has been covered in research on library use and provides a platform for more rapid advancement.

In a different area of service, but still evaluating by means of opinions of users, is the *Catalog Use Study*.⁴ Given the consideration they deserve, its findings will force attention to the needs of library users and away from cataloging perfectionism, providing a ready

example of policy decision and administrative action based on patron opinion.

Yet while all these studies have done much to point the way for future investigation they have touched only in a minor fashion on one area. That is the wide field of research on the opinions of people who do not use the library (The New York Public Library recognizes that its survey does not cover this segment of opinion and hopes to do something about it in the future.) In this area summaries of case studies as well as statistics and correlations would prove most valuable, and to the time-honored methods of investigation of librarians and social scientists should be added the techniques of marketing and motivational research. Such research may, incidentally, uncover the clue to effecting changes in the opinion of libraries and librarians held by the public.

Although a part of the general public in many ways, there are other individuals and groups that have a more direct relation to library administration and more immediate influence on decisions. Among these are boards of trustees; citizen groups oriented toward the library, such as friends, councils, and advisory bodies; and the fiscal authority as well as the various departments subordinate to it. The thoughts, attitudes, and opinions regarding the library which are held by these groups and individuals have much to do with its objectives, services, and operation; but while the parties concerned have more intimate knowledge of library problems than the public at large they possess it in varying degrees and have equally varying degrees of interest.

Of all these, the administrator has the greatest access to the group and individual thinking of his board of trustees. The general composition, backgrounds, and attitudes of library board members have been thoroughly investigated and reported in the Oliver Garceau⁸ and Leigh⁹ volumes of the Public Library Inquiry. While there is no such thing in actuality as the average individual or typical board of trustees, the statements and conclusions of these volumes have been borne out many times in the findings of teams surveying specific libraries. They exist equally in the experience of every library administrator who has passed the neophyte stage. The inevitable conclusion is that, with notable exceptions, trustees of public libraries simply do not think very much about the operation for which they are responsible, beyond the attention monthly meetings force on them. That they do not think about it in the same way as the library administrator is completely understandable, considering the intermittent attention he may give to

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important community organizations on whose boards he himself serves.

Because not all board members come equipped with qualifications that the administrator would choose for the "all-time all-American" board, it is his job to impress upon them individually and collectively the importance of the library's contribution to society, the amount of work done by its shorthanded staff, and comparable matters. Although this educational process is best not referred to as "educating the trustees"—the terminology may well bring about such a violent reaction as to defeat its purpose—it is an essential first step in reaching for financial support of the library.

In theory the combined members of the board represent the various parts of the community and thus bring community thinking to bear on the direction of the public library's affairs. Again, as Garceau,⁷ reports, it just is not true that boards are usually representative of the community culturally, economically, educationally, or even geographically. Board members themselves then must learn something of the views of various community groups. But seldom do they have the time or inclination or even associations to learn of any thinking and attitudes beyond those of their own circle. Ideally a board should issue public invitations to groups and individuals to attend its meetings and express themselves on the library. However, library boards ordinarily do not follow this practice, in contrast to some school boards where not only is public attendance at sessions sought but where even public budget hearings are held. True, open meetings with public representatives present would consume more time than a board normally spends on library business. Yet undoubtedly they would in the long run be much more worth-while, despite the few crackpots and axe grinders they would attract, than devoting time to the minutiae of administration, which as Garceau⁸ suggests, are much better left in the hands of a competent administrator.

Activation of board members to more direct interest in the library and their education in its problems can be precursors of vigorous action for recognition and support of their institutions.⁹ Research into these phases of trustee relationships, resulting in concrete advice and techniques for accomplishing desired ends, would be of immeasurable value to the administrator caught in today's time dilemma of trying to meet service, staff, book, and other general management problems, and of devising means of getting more recognition of and action on them by a lay board.

Broader than the board of trustees in representation of community

needs and desires are groups oriented towards the library. Among these are the usual organizations affiliated with public libraries, such as community councils, Y.M.C.A.'s and other welfare agencies. These, however, are not particularly significant in discovering community attitudes because their boards too represent upper social and educational strata and they, as well as their agency personnel, are heavy library users. Although strongly favoring the library programs, they are too much concerned with their own money problems and have too little political power to exert much influence on library financing.

While "library friends" or council groups are also composed largely of persons already favorably disposed toward the library, they stand the chance of providing wider representation and often actually do. But at the same time nowhere does the administrator's fear of outside pressures for services and agencies come into such prominence as it does in relation to friends and councils. Encouraging the establishment of a citizen group is like opening a Pandora's Box—what starts to be a flow of milk and honey may turn into sour curds and brimstone. No doubt such a transmutation is due as often to the library administrator's resentment, when the thinking of the group diverges too far from his own, as it is to a runaway tendency. Yet the real value of such a group to an administrator lies in the very fact that it does think outside the channels of a profession and tradition, and brings to him the opinions of his "publics." Alas, when these do not agree with his own it sometimes causes either frustration and violent separation, or the channelling of the group into a pink tea and literary society, thus rendering it ineffectual from any point of view.

A comprehensive job of collecting details about friends groups on a nationwide scale is reported in the *P.L.D. Reporter*¹⁰ of June, 1955. In addition to stating purposes it records accomplishments. However, the former are too broad and the latter too specific to give any true evaluation of friends groups as a help to the administrator. To the report's wealth of fact should be added case studies of "successful" and "unsuccessful" library-oriented citizen bodies. From such sources the administrator could learn through the experience of others how to help these groups be effective and how to avoid pitfalls encountered by the failures.

Always in the mind of the administrator of a public library is the attitude of the authority that appropriates its funds. Of almost equal concern to him in this relationship are the subordinate heads of city departments and their staffs, who make recommendations to the appro-

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priating authority and with whom he frequently deals. Too often these officials are all-powerful. And much more political force than a library usually can muster is required to persuade the appropriating body to give weight to the request of the library over the recommendation of the budget director, comptroller, or comparable officer.

How, and by what specific means can the library administrator influence the thinking of the appropriating authority and those who make recommendations to it in order that they will supply the library with funds for operation beyond the mere level of subsistence? How can he exert the needed influence and still keep the library free of the entanglements of politics and patronage? Examples do exist where proof that the library is getting the greatest possible return out of each dollar spent results in allocation of more of the dollars it needs. On the other hand, the result can be a demand for more economy, leading to elimination of essential services and operations. There are also examples where the library administrator's personality and ability have enabled him to achieve, by personal contact, outstanding results in financial support. And some few have been successful through "pressure politics," though this is infrequent. Every method that comes to mind has serious adverse possibilities, yet there are times when the administrator, to save or develop that in which he believes, must undertake any or all of them. Perhaps some astute student of administrative science can point out methods or guideposts in this all-important area.

Thus far there have been considered communications to and from the board of trustees, the public and the fiscal authority as areas of singular importance and meriting further investigation. While the amount of material on communication with these groups is not considerable, almost no attention is paid in library literature to the extremely vital area of internal communications as related to administrative action.

This is in sharp contrast to conditions in business and industry, which treat communication as a management essential. Neglect of this topic by librarians may be due to the fact that by far the greater proportion of libraries are small and personal contact of the administrator with staff is assumed to suffice. That assumption is open to question, and certainly personal contact becomes inadequate where departmentalization and specialization take place. Internal communication is basic to scientific management, and perhaps the slowness with which libraries have adopted the principles and techniques of scientific

management accounts for the paucity of literature on internal communication. It seems only fair to conclude, however, that with or without writing about it the problem of internal communication is recognized and faced daily by library administrators.

In her volume, *The Public Librarian*,¹¹ Alice Bryan touches briefly on internal communications. In keeping with the purpose of her book, she records only a few of the devices that administrators use in transmitting information to their staffs. For today's administrator this is not enough. Internal communication is a multi-pronged affair, with information flowing in many directions. Freeness in this flow is essential to administration, and the administrator must devise the means for collecting facts on which to base his decisions. The day of the autocrat, the administrator who knows all and sees all, has seen its end, at least in the large library situation, simply because of the tremendous range of decisions required, from plans for a building to commas on catalog cards. Today's administrator must rely on specialists and subordinate administrators, who know their own areas much more intimately than the director ever can. Thus, in a very real way, the administrator is told what to think by his subordinates. Although in the end he must weigh facts and make decisions for which he has final responsibility, he can do so only on the basis of data and opinions supplied by members of his staff. In this sense, as well as in that of transmitting attitudes and directions of thinking to subordinates, communication is the foundation of the organizational pattern and administrative function, rather than a mere adjunct.

At the administrative level itself, the free flow up and down of information and ideas is relatively simple. With few people involved, frequent personal contact with the administrator is possible. More or less regular meetings of department heads as a group with the administrator are standard practice. In these conference situations there usually is good communication, arising from a sense of working toward the same end. But once out of a meeting, a department head's concern with his own problems can lead to a breakdown of communication with his fellow department heads. This often is due to no more than failure to realize how some other area of the operation will be affected by his decisions or actions. Hence the administrator's subordinates not only tell him what to think, but in a very real way share responsibility for the success or failure of his plans through their ability or inability to communicate with each other to achieve effective operation.

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heads can be and usually is good, communication becomes less and less effective on progression down the organizational hierarchy. The more remote a worker is from the director's level the smaller are his chances of understanding why a certain decision has been made and the smaller are the administrator's chances of securing implementation of his plans. In this area, management literature has paid much attention to semantics and to simplicity and clarity of writing and speaking, in order to make certain that the thought-images created in the line worker are identical with those meant by the administrator. While such attention is deserved, the key to good communication, lies not only in phraseology but also in the attitude of intermediate and immediate supervisors. Only to the extent that they are convinced of the importance of transmitting their views in a fashion to achieve action and create understanding, will the orders, explanations, and information from the top become effective.

In like manner, the immediate and intermediate supervisors hold the key to transmission of information up the line. Any administrator recognizes the value of knowing what staff members at all levels think and feel. Only with this knowledge can he correct misunderstandings and allay the unfounded rumors that arise in any organization—often doubted but subconsciously half believed. He knows the natural disinclination of a supervisor to accept and put into effect or forward the suggestions of subordinates because of self-esteem and of thinking that he himself should have had the ideas.

To develop lines of communication with staff at all levels an administrator may try various devices, such as personal visits to line units, setting aside a day for staff visits to his office, and terminal interviews. Although each may be good in itself none are completely satisfactory for developing sound attitudes or correcting poor ones. Having fully recognized the effect of the individual worker's interests and desires on services, costs, and profits, business has developed the "attitude survey," to supply general managers with basic information that the library administrator lacks. For information on attitudes to be frank, realistic, and reasonably objective, it cannot be gathered by the administrator and his staff but must be obtained from the outside combination of a psychologist and a management analyst. While the initial cost may be heavy, investigation of the methods of attitude surveys readily reveals that resulting information provides a sound base for objectives, policies, and management, and likewise records what the staff thinks and thus acts as a morale factor.

All these areas of internal communications in library administration are wide open to investigation. A survey of the literature of business and industry would make a good beginning. Through selection and evaluation of the findings a tool of practical assistance for administrators could be evolved, and further studies of particular aspects applied to the operation of libraries could follow.

If the needs for communication and for antennae to facilitate it are as indicated, are there special reasons for attention to them now? A glance at conditions in the library field may suggest an answer.

The 1950's are demanding years, when the resources of the public library should be making a maximum contribution to society. It is becoming increasingly evident to many in the profession, however, that the public library has missed its mark. Large segments of the population remain unaware of its resources, and individuals fail to make the most of its services by integrating its use in their daily lives. The attitude of the general public continues to be as it has been from time immemorial, that "libraries are good to have in case they are needed" and that their resources should be available, but "for the other fellow." Even more disconcerting is this estimate when it comes, as it frequently does, from individuals and groups at high professional and business levels. Such concepts, still existent among community leaders, as "a library can be located anywhere, preferably in an attractive spot outside the heart of the business community," or "librarians have pleasant, easy jobs involving no pressures," are indirectly responsible for the impasse the public library has reached in fulfilling its potential for service to the community. As long as these represent the general posture, libraries will be kept on a starvation diet. Furthermore they will have little chance to escape from that because, despite all their efforts, they will fail to attract in sufficient numbers the recruits able to assert the position of libraries and to meet the profession's needs.

The time has come for a positive step to combat this general apathy regarding libraries. The development and effectuation of sound service programs are required to eliminate the "doubting-Thomas beliefs" and establish firmly in the minds of all that the library is a vital educational force. The Public Library Inquiry has offered some guidance in this respect, but it is questionable how far its theories have been tested and whether any concrete measures have been taken in pursuance of its conclusions. In any event it should be axiomatic with libraries, as it is in business, that the offering of a good product, avail-

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able in sufficient quantity to meet prospective demand, must precede encouragement of that demand. In order to break through the general indifference towards libraries this precept needs to be rigorously followed.

In building a sound program of action it is necessary to review the objectives, so that the services to be supplied will be those required and suitable, and to reject the idea that a library can be everything to everybody and that it should take on this and that task "because no one else has." Only so can a public library have a mark and hope to hit it. The process should include fact-finding, doubtless partly through testing and discarding theory, but certainly by consulting appropriate persons and groups and weighing their interests and views. Here one aspect of communication comes in. The results should embrace clear instead of confused aims; conservation of time and energy, including concentration by trained librarians upon professional tasks; a finished rather than an amateur product; and the realizing of maximum returns from the dollars received and expended.

With such a foundation communication again could come into active play, through a program of public relations which would have something to advertise and could go far toward opening a new era for public libraries. It ought, of course, to be comprehensive and planned. Up to now the one-shot effort, the isolated use of a publicity tool without coordination within an over-all scheme and with only sporadic attention to public relations in general, has been more the rule in libraries than the well thought out long-range program. There are exceptions, of course, such as that in the Enoch Pratt Free Library, where the public relations program is broad and holds a high priority in the administration; and in the Denver Public Library, where a strong influence has been exercised through leadership in community groups. And encouraging developments likewise are seen in the vigor of the Library Public Relations Council of the New York metropolitan area and in the new and rapidly developing Public Relations Section of the Library Administration Division of the American Library Association. From these may come strong leadership, but there should be equally strong public relations programs under the A.L.A. for librarian-ship as a whole.

It is such possibilities that warrant the emphasis upon communication and antennae urged in this paper. Library administrators may well take a leaf from the record of business and industry in their striving to keep in contact with those their institutions might serve

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and with those who support, control, and help to operate those institutions. Something like this seems indispensable if they are to ascertain and influence the attitudes of those around them, to the advantage and usefulness of the enterprises they represent.

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Auxiliary Administrative Tasks

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IN VIEWING LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION today, care may be needed to include all its aspects. Even librarians may fall into acting as if a person responsible for a library, having been attracted by his calling and fitted for it, is occupied solely in acquiring and organizing library materials and making them useful to people—this although they know the realities are otherwise.

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It also is relevant to distinguish the place the several parts of library administration deserve. That may be especially true because so far there seems to have been only limited critical examination of the duties in libraries. Existing descriptions of positions appear to be reportorial, rather than preceptive or even aimed at designating what might be correct.

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In any case, it must be recognized that frequently there are lumped with a librarian's essential tasks some which are not intrinsic or peculiar to library work, which he may not have anticipated undertaking, and for which he could not be expected to possess particular capacities. Prominent are those connected with housing, staffing, the conduct of business affairs and public relations, and possibly photographic processing. Among them, also, are statistical and editorial duties, the protection of clientele, staff and property, and attention to management problems. Still others may claim a place, now or in the future.

Such responsibilities seem to merit scrutiny because generally they are inescapable, because they entail considerable outlay in time, effort and money, and because they may not have been provided for in the most suitable or efficient manner. Observation indicates that, in small libraries at least, often no one of them is enough to constitute a job in itself, and that such a job could not be budgeted in any case. Conse-

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quently they become lodged with regular staff members as time permits, or with the head librarian.

To handle auxiliary functions in such a way may have seemed expedient, but is it sensible? The individuals taking them on presumably have ample loads as librarians—at least one seldom hears that libraries are overstaffed. What time and attention are required for them must be drawn from library duties, perhaps at the cost of some distraction. Again, the knowledge and skills those persons are apt to lack are important—facility, for example, in saying what should be done about a leaking window or window-frame, in approving a job of gutter-mending or termite extermination, or in speaking the final word about a new floor surfacing or heating installation, after experts have proffered alternative and perhaps conflicting recommendations. Comparable handicaps may show in the testing of applicants for staff positions, in the procedures of financial bookkeeping, and in the several arts involved in public relations, to say nothing of the remaining range of incidental activities.

The prospect that library service may suffer when unprepared librarians attempt unaccustomed duties of course is the clinching reason for examining how far the ancillary responsibilities are in proper hands. If libraries were conspicuous for meeting the demands upon them and measuring up to their opportunities, flaws here and there in their structure might be overlooked. As it is they hardly can afford to ignore such defects and any conditions causing them.

The facts pertinent in considering the auxiliary responsibilities are what and how much has been done to regularize their management and render it effective, and how that has been accomplished. Specifically this means what amounts of time and attention are accorded them, what the status is of the persons in charge of them, and the qualifications for their work such persons possess. The place to look is the libraries which have sought and attained in some degree a systematic assignment of the duties. Such information can represent only a limited number of libraries, as explained in the addendum to the present paper. It does illustrate the conditions, however, and is set forth in the ensuing paragraphs with as much generalizing and as little minutiae as has seemed possible. In assembling it and in interpreting it the libraries were thought of as in two classes—those conducted autonomously and those associated operatively with institutions or governmental units—this because the latter customarily differ from others in being relieved more or less of the extrinsic activities by out-

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side offices. The groups are referred to in the paper as "unattached" and "attached" respectively.

Naturally the practices of large libraries in managing the secondary duties vary widely and are not readily classifiable. As a rule a given responsibility is cared for in one of three ways. Where the provision is most nearly complete—in about one-fourth of the total libraries considered—there are full-time officers bearing distinctive titles, sometimes prepared for their assignments through study and/or experience in relevant fields, recognized by salaries which range up to \$10,500, and generally furnished with assistance amounting to one or more workers and in a few instances to nine or above. In a comparable number of cases officers giving less than full time to the special activities exist, designated by titles related either to their particular tasks or to librarianship, occasionally with preparation suited to their jobs, receiving compensation usually beyond the \$6,000 level, and provided with aid, although frequently not as much as one assistant. Finally, there remain even in large libraries fairly numerous examples suggesting unplanned disposition of the ancillary functions, the methods being either to distribute them among one or more staff members or to leave them in the hands of the head librarian to manage as he can. In such cases the persons responsible have the appearance of casuals as far as their special tasks are concerned. Here and there they have enjoyed some study or experience fitting them for their work; their salaries as a rule seem what they would receive as librarians and without reference to extraneous duties; and they apparently have the benefit of such help as is necessary from associates or subordinates, although the amount of this is indefinite and probably often minor.

Within this pattern a few circumstances are notable. Auxiliary duties may be substantial even in attached libraries; the persons in charge of them frequently are well prepared as librarians, whether or not they are so in ancillary fields; assistance for the directors of incidental activities appears most liberal where the directors themselves have firmly established major-time status, and the reverse; and compensation lower than might be anticipated occurs here and there, despite a generally favorable remuneration level.

The deviations, however, are numerous and widespread. They seem coupled with diverse views about the several functions and the consequent sense of obligation regarding them; with the stage reached in dealing with those functions, generally and locally; and most of all

with the contrasting conditions in attached and unattached libraries.

For personnel administration about a fourth of the libraries maintain full-time officers with distinguishing titles, according to the general pattern; but about the same proportion depends upon appointees describable as casuals as respects the work in question, and a larger number has part-time officers. To be sure, in attached libraries the full-time ratio runs much lower than this and the part-time higher. Yet evidently in such situations an impressive measure of direction and control continues to be exercised by the libraries—in one instance it is reported that a university personnel authority "only establishes basic policy." The number of casuals too may suggest a common disinclination on the part of administrators to relinquish a matter as intimate to effective service as personnel administration is, and possibly even to concede how much attention it requires.

Personnel officers on the whole receive only moderate amounts of help, perhaps because what assistants can contribute is thought limited, except in the largest organizations. A sprinkling of them have pursued substantial study, and somewhat more have accumulated experience in their field, although in neither case to any such extent as in librarianship.

Conforming to type again, business managers are on full time in approximately one-fourth of the libraries. Such officers giving part of their time appear in well toward one-half of the cases, however, and not many casuals are found. The relatively full provision here—more abundant all told than in any other of the auxiliary areas—possibly can be laid to the facts that financial procedures are involved in book-buying, regardless of the need for them otherwise; that they must have begun to claim attention early in library history; and that they may comprehend the total fiscal activities. Assistance to finance officers is generous, commensurate with the circumstance that much of the work can be handled by clerical persons and that this reduces the time demanded from those in charge. Help is fairly plentiful even in attached libraries, this resulting probably from the need for records which a central institutional or municipal office might not maintain and which in any case must be at hand.

The record for special preparatory study and experience shown by business officers is the strongest in the ancillary fields, this being particularly true of their experience. An explanation may be a tendency in libraries to look for such qualifications, plus the availability of school and college courses in relevant subjects and the opportunities

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for pertinent work outside libraries. The conversance of such officers with library science is modest. Their salaries include more below the \$6,000 mark than occur elsewhere, perhaps in line with the nature of some of the duties and the brevity of the schooling required for them.

Building supervisors are retained in well over half of the libraries, those on full and part time being about equally numerous, and officers giving all their time being more prominent than for any other of the auxiliary duties. There are very few who carry the tasks only incidentally. Such ratios very likely are attributable to long-standing pressures of housekeeping duties felt directly by administrators. It is of interest that only one of the full-time officers is in an attached library, and that more commonly than in any other of the ancillary fields libraries report that they bear no responsibility. Despite this there are enough part-time men and casuals in attached libraries to show that the necessity often remains there for persons to follow up on needs and to maintain general liaison in relation to cleaning, repairs, and alterations. Also, so far as casuals are present they could imply, at least where the work is limited, a tendency to tolerate the survival of traditional practice or of assignments once lodged with individuals for momentary reasons.

Whatever arrangements obtain for plant supervision may be supplemented when construction projects are in train. One large city library states that temporarily the attention to building oversight is stepped up because of a "branch expansion program and physical changes at Central"; another at present has a full time "new buildings officer," as is known to have happened in at least one metropolitan situation in the past. Except in attached libraries the help furnished to plan superintendents is extensive, although some of that reported doubtless is only custodial.

Practical experience has contributed more to the equipment of buildings supervisors than study in their special field, which has been scant. Not that appropriate schooling is infeasible or unknown, for in some cases courses in maintenance have been pursued or engineering degrees have been attained; but these are exceptional. Acquaintance with library work has only a small place. Salaries seem to reflect the kind and standard of preparation since, as in the case of business managers, there is a marked number in the low brackets.

Public relations, taken at its widest, claims the services of designated full-time officers in less than one-fourth of the libraries—this being the arrangement almost invariably in metropolitan instances—and of

part-timers in somewhat fewer. The total for the two groups is smaller than for any of the other auxiliary functions. In attached libraries full-time persons are rare—none at all are reported from universities. Of the others, two-thirds give less than half time. Casual management is frequent, notably in universities, where a common plan presumably is for a staff member to keep a central publicity agency *en rapport* with library affairs and to maintain appropriate contacts with clientele, "Friends of the Library," and potential benefactors. However, one university librarian allots a major portion of his time to public relations; and a recent respondent, supposedly thinking in the main of such situations, judges "that at least fifty per cent, probably more, of the time and attention of the country's top library directors is devoted to activities falling under the head of 'public relations'." Help amounting to at least one full-time worker is usually at the call of full-time officers, running in one instance to as many as eleven, with less available for part-time heads and casuals.

The cases in which public relations officers have prepared themselves by study in their subject and on the other hand by experience in the same field are about equally numerous, and together they are not impressive. Further, about as many have acquired conversance with librarianship as with their specialty, which may suggest that the incumbents often are librarians who have turned to the auxiliary branch of work. Their salaries generally are at or above the \$6,000 mark; although some are below that and may imply the utilization of subordinates who because of youth or other factors have not progressed far in the service.

In gauging the provision for public relations, several conditions need to be kept in mind. In the absence of agreed definition the subject must be taken broadly—embracing simple publicity, measures for spreading comprehension and use of facilities, and services aimed partially at promotion. So interpreted, the relatively small number of special officers tells only part of the story, since most members of most library staffs may be engaged in the enterprise. Among the reasons for such ramifying participation may be that it is closely bound with many kinds of service to the public; that it is too pervasive to be readily isolated as an activity; and that it calls for varied gifts, from those of assistants versed in feature-writing, editing, and display, to the talents of high-level staff members facile in individual and community contacts and in innovations, conveniences, allurements, and sheer hospitality.

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Furthermore, the task entailed in public relations evidently is seen to be as sizable and pressing as its demands are varied. Library staffs accordingly appear sensitive to it, even though it could be slighted without immediately troublesome consequences, much less official or public criticism. They also must be aware that no one will bother about it if they do not. The spread and urgency of public relations thus combine to elicit contributions which augment materially those of both special and casual officers. They probably mount up to more aid to administrators than might be guessed.

Photographic processing seems to rank as an auxiliary service; for although it is a means of making informational resources available and therefore might be treated as intrinsic to library work, its techniques are peculiar to itself and it can be assigned largely to persons whose skills are limited to those techniques. Provision for it appears almost solely where reference and research work are extensive, which means relatively few even of the large libraries, and those mainly at universities.

At several libraries there is an expert "head of photographic services," or a similarly designated person, on full time. Again, the work is in charge of a librarian, with or without distinctive status, who with some staff manages photographic operations along with other duties—perhaps oversight of technical processes generally, or of printing, binding, duplicating, supplies, or even business affairs or physical plant. Three libraries scatter the responsibility among several individuals, in one case pending concentration when it becomes possible to reorganize. One library depends wholly upon a part-time student assistant, and another upon a clerk. Only one case is known in which a central agency takes care of photographic processing for an attached library. The assistance available to full-time men runs to as many as nine helpers, and in one exceptional case far beyond that; and it is by no means niggardly in general—this in line with the routine nature of much of the work.

Not a great deal of special study or experience is represented in the records of photographic officers, and of the two experience is the more marked. Preparation in librarianship has a larger place, implying that librarians may often have taken on the duties in question. With the examples small in number and diverse, little can be concluded about the compensation of the heads of photographic services, some appearing above the \$6,000 level and some below.

While the arrangements for photographic processing are new, few,

and not closely in line with those for auxiliary responsibilities generally, they may be settling into a scheme of their own. They seem at least to represent a measure of evolution. Some readers will recall that in years past head librarians here and there devoted a good deal of attention to them. This may have been inevitable in the pioneering stage, since the processes take unlike forms and differ in their advantages and disadvantages, and often entail substantial investment, so that policy decisions have necessitated study of their features. They also may have pricked the normal interest of executives in scientific aids to efficiency. Present conditions can well be viewed against this background.

Other ancillary responsibilities might be listed at length, for they appear to be growing in prominence. Only those mentioned in the introduction to this paper seem to occupy any considerable place, however, namely statistical control, the editing of publications, the policing of services and quarters, and the study of management conditions and practices. At that, the provisions existing for them have little relation to the general pattern. In a few libraries where their volume has mounted there are special officers or even departments, sometimes mingling auxiliary duties with others. Ordinarily, however, the activities so far as they are developed would seem to be carried by head librarians incidentally, by other staff members as expediency and schedules permit, by clerks, or in combinations of these ways. All told the arrangements for them offer little fresh or significant illustration.

What estimate can be placed upon the conditions as portrayed? How far do they indicate advance in shifting the auxiliary responsibilities from librarians to persons possessing time and qualifications for them?

In a general way there undoubtedly has been progress. Long-time observers know that the existence of special officers is a modern development; and indeed it would have been unthinkable when all libraries were small. Many will recall that as late as the mid-thirties personnel directors, for instance, were rare, although the need for them was becoming manifest. Their contemporary presence and that of their companion officers therefore represents a gain, whatever their numbers and equipment. Furthermore, it supplies examples and perhaps incentives for libraries which are lagging.

Looking at the picture more concretely, a standard for evaluating the conditions may be hypothecated, beginning with the view advanced by the Public Libraries Division of the American Library Asso-

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ciation in 1956 and used in discovering the libraries to be covered in the present study, that a library having a staff of seventy-five or more should be served by a special personnel officer. The proposal did not specify that the one in charge of personnel administration should devote all his time to that work, but since otherwise the statement would lack meaning as a guide it may be supposed that this was intended. It seems fair to infer also that he was to be thought of as having expert status, prepared by a year or more of formal study and/or by five years or better of experience in his field, compensated to correspond with his duties and qualifications, and furnished with the help of one or more assistants. The standard can be completed by assuming that a library with a staff of the size indicated would need comparable officers, similarly equipped, for each of the other major ancillary functions. Implicit too is an adequate comprehension of the several areas, with intent to discharge the responsibilities on the scale they demand. In using the criterion leeway obviously is necessary where libraries are parts of other units and consequently do not bear the full burden of auxiliary duties.

The summaries suggest how far short of any such norm the libraries fall. Taking into account the numbers of special officers, the time they and their assistants can give, and the qualifications and status they embody, only about one-fourth of the libraries supposedly large enough to meet the standard are doing so. Even allowing for the indeterminate needs in attached libraries, such a proportion hardly can be made to look favorable. What the conditions must be in the hundreds of libraries of less size and resources can be imagined. Clearly all too much remains on the shoulders of staff members whose main obligation is service to the public, including head librarians. True, the norm is a theoretical one; but the committee that ventured it knew well the situation in public libraries at least. True again, some public libraries whose position seems to call for staffs of seventy-five or more were found to have fewer than this; yet failure to maintain the force a service area would require hardly can excuse disregard of still another standard.

The shortcomings are confirmed by various remarks and observations of respondents. Examples from unattached libraries are sundry statements of chiefs—in one case that the proportion of his day consigned to incidental duties amounts to "about one hundred and fifty per cent"; in one that "far too much time of the librarian . . . is spent on matters that should be delegated to properly trained assistants";

in a third that for the want of help on such tasks "the struggle to expand our facilities and stretch our financial resources takes me farther and farther from the real work of the library," so that "any time I spend on real library work . . . is a treat"; and in still another that "for two years budget requests have included funds for a full-time personnel director and a publicity director, but . . . have been cut so deeply as to eliminate these two positions," and that "we are not through requesting."

Such laments are repeated for the specific fields—for instance, that a "full-time personnel director is an outstanding need"; that "it at times seems desirable to have one position for the business operations and one for buildings, etc.," instead of a combination, "budgetary problems" being "largely responsible for this not having been accomplished"; and that "for the public relations and publications program," "more time is needed and a higher level of training and experience." The limited help available often where ancillary responsibilities are carried incidentally lends double force to such complaints, and underlines the degree to which bricks are having to be made with little straw.

In attached libraries dissatisfactions are less marked, and the arrangements with outside offices sometimes are described as working well; yet aid from such agencies does not necessarily render everything simple and serene. Apart from the fact that a library may be billed for services received—which supposedly can be adjusted fairly enough—the liaison and the communication back and forth may be cumbersome, and the action of a central office upon accumulating requests from cued-up claimants may seem dilatory. And apparently the anticipated help may be uncertain. One comment regarding a group of university libraries—in this instance, it is true, libraries presumably not large enough for inclusion in the inquiry—stated that "the university librarian is expected to be a man of all work," and that "the scholarly interests are usually sacrificed to the performance of quite menial tasks: carpentry; helping the janitor move books or cases, etc."

As implied in the testimony, complaints are likely to be most sharp from "in-between size" libraries, where the engaging of specialists would be within reason and perhaps is seen to be so, but must await growth and amplified means. One such case appears in a city of almost 400,000 population. More or less often such libraries may not have reached the dimensions suited to their potential clientele, their basic trouble therefore being that they remain small libraries in large situations.

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Not that all the reactions have been critical. Some libraries enjoying adequate provision for the auxiliary duties noted their satisfaction with conditions. Probably this could have been assumed, since they hardly would have persisted in the retention of special officers and staffs unless convinced that the device was working to advantage. Further, one metropolitan library recently has had a survey of the operations here considered made by a firm of management consultants, presumably with a view to improving the existent practice since there is no intimation of relinquishing it.

Contentment with things as they are was indicated also in a number of libraries where regulations for the ancillary responsibilities plainly fall short, qualified sometimes by such expressions as "present arrangements seem satisfactory for this library." If the standard is in any wise valid, however, such reports scarcely can prove success in disregard of it. Commendable effort against odds there may have been; but the likelihood would seem that the libraries either are suffering from want of the facilities suited to their supposed class, or that they have not attained that class. Exceptions of course are to be allowed for in the cases of attached libraries.

The attitude of those failing to disclose a judgment on conditions naturally can only be guessed—whether they relish their lot, or are too unhappy to dwell upon it, or are unconcerned. Perhaps a fair surmise is that a majority would welcome improvement, but either do not see it as urgent, or indulge faint hopes of getting it and therefore think the less said the better.

The picture as revealed might be dismissed as one of normal transition, yet a glance at some of its causes may help in judging whether librarians can afford to let the matter rest. The budget limitations deplored by respondents undoubtedly are common, and are of particular moment because auxiliary officers and staffs must be charged to administration. With the item for book purchases often a regrettably small part of total expenditures, additions to operating costs may seem hard to defend, yet they may be in the long-range interest. Again, prevailing ways of handling the secondary duties, warranted at the time of their introduction but not advantageous permanently, may have become unduly fixed. Especially where coupled with a lag in modern organization generally, they may have retarded progress. Finally, the several functions may not have been seen as calling for more than minor concern.

Present returns, apart from the definite practices reported from

major libraries, are not barren of hints for overborne head librarians. The handicaps inherent in service units of scant size themselves imply that creation of larger agencies could bring better management of extraneous responsibilities. Again, persons may be appointed to subordinate library positions who have conversance with the auxiliary tasks, or flair for them; and some already on the payroll may be encouraged to fit themselves for such duties.

The responses to the inquiry tempt a reader to imagine still other avenues of relief. Just as an attorney on a board of trustees may furnish his library legal advice, for example, help along other lines might be securable from comparable sources, or even from "Friends of the Library" or from officials of sister institutions. Such a solution hardly could be recommended as a permanency; and the assistance might be largely on a staff rather than a line basis while it lasted. Often it would deserve compensation, of course; but at that it supposedly would represent a saving, and could be worth-while as a stop-gap if it lightened administrative burdens and improved results.

Beside the matters so far discussed there are some in the background which deserve to influence future thinking about the handling of the auxiliary responsibilities.

One of these is the conditions in attached libraries, which are bound to render it difficult for such libraries to invoke any settled formula for managing the duties. Whether associated with educational institutions, with political units, or with private foundations, the burdens such libraries carry and the methods they follow are determined largely by their individual situations. Probably it is correct to say that no two are alike—some have considerable ranges of the auxiliary tasks carried by central offices and others only small amounts; some are relieved quite definitely of one or more branches of work and less so of the rest. Also, events and decisions outside the libraries' control may govern or change their share of the load. While such circumstances may becloud judgments as to the practice to be preferred in a given place, however, they may be the best reasons for studying whatever problems are at issue and for having a policy, subject to local factors and to forecasts of institutional and governmental courses.

If there are to be auxiliary officers, question arises whether they should be primarily specialists or essentially librarians. Some avoid this, asserting that "the quality of the personnel" and its work are

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more important than "organization," or "who does what," or even "standards of education." But the issue is there.

As heretofore shown, a great number of the specialists are librarians, sometimes equipped by study or seasoned experience in their particular fields, but more often not. This arrangement probably rests mainly upon expediency, if not necessity; yet one respondent avers that "library training and experience are desirable for the auxiliary positions." Another says regarding personnel management that since it "is of major importance to the development of good library service," it "can not be left in the hands of those who are not directly responsible for that service." And an able expositor, himself in charge of some of the ancillary duties, writes that "without a thorough knowledge of library practices and problems, including those in the areas of bibliography and service to readers, we cannot do effective work."

Some emphasize this viewpoint by advocating concentration of more than one function in a single librarian. Such an arrangement is reported from a university library as "exceedingly satisfactory," since "by having one administrator responsible for these varying phases of administration, there is a coordination of activities and a continuity which would not exist if responsibility was invested in several individuals." A colleague elsewhere approves it as "placing in responsible hands the administration of areas very important to the library's successful operation," and has plans to add a high-level staff member to help the director and associate director in the several auxiliary tasks. It is to be noted that both of these comments come from universities, where such work does not fall wholly upon the libraries. In any event, if they mean asking special officers to be expert in more than one field, that apparently is not regarded as too much.

Convictions to the contrary, based equally on experience, are no less firm. In one case it has been the "goal to utilize the skills and knowledges of other professions . . . whenever possible," and in another the use of "specialists in their subject fields" has been found very acceptable. In a third the intention is to add such persons when the tasks calling for them have grown sufficiently. Even more positive are the statement that most of the positions dealing with the auxiliary duties "are not in [the] professional librarian series"; the belief "that non-librarians as personnel supervisor and building manager can bring to the library special qualifications and experience which are better than what could be gained by converting a librarian"; and the opinion that "inasmuch as possible it seems desirable . . . to remove from

professional functions those activities not directly related to library service."

Possibly resolution of the opposing positions is not to be pressed. Those favoring auxiliary officers who are first of all librarians have a strong argument in the value of intimate internal knowledge of the institutions to be served. On the other hand, the basic assets of such an officer are knowledge and skill in his specialty. If he possesses those he should be able to apply them effectively in a department store, a steel mill, a school system, or a library. He will need familiarity with library practice; but that should be acquirable through attentiveness to the conditions and procedures in libraries, and not indispensably by formal study of library science or by being a librarian. The ultimate choice between the two courses may hinge upon the importance ascribed to the division of labor, of which more later.

The use of the term "professional" in one of the quotations above might seem to pose a distinction between the dignity and prestige of one calling and those of another. Probably nothing of the kind was intended; and in any event it need not be entertained. If the status of librarians is professional, so also is that, for example, of a personnel or public relations director; and indeed in today's scene it might be the more widely recognized. But it is professional in its own right. The qualified practitioner in the management of personnel or public relations possesses it, whatever the enterprise to which he contributes his capacities. The librarian who goes to the pains of equipping himself for such an auxiliary field acquires it, although without dependence on his role as a librarian. He has become doubly professional.

There remains the problem of dealing with the auxiliary responsibilities on a sufficiently broad front. This is three-fold, involving the ideas about the duties themselves, the administrative principle particularly applying to them, and the science of administration in general.

It has been suggested that the manner of providing for the ancillary activities is likely to depend upon the notions held regarding their scope. It naturally makes a difference whether personnel administration, for example, is thought of simply as hiring, placing, and keeping time and payroll records, or as embracing the formulation of classification and compensation schemes, the setting up and supervising of retirement plans, arrangements for transfer, promotion and discipline, staff training and improvement, attention to the varied aspects of welfare, and the conduct of needed studies. It makes a corresponding difference whether the work of a business office is seen only as routine

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purchasing and financial processes, or as joining with these the general planning of fiscal procedures, the development of systems and techniques, the coordinating of operations with those of other departments, the drafting of budgets, the preparing of formal reports, and the prosecution of pertinent investigations.

As between such views of course a library may feel that it can do little to effectuate a choice. What it vests in an auxiliary office may be ordained by deep-rooted peculiarities in its organization or, in the case of attached libraries, by what remains to be done beyond the tasks carried by outside agencies. But if efficiency is worth an ancillary officer, it seems worth an endeavor wherever feasible to take into account all that he could be controlling advantageously. The evidence suggests that libraries sometimes scrape through with scant concern for secondary duties because they have not considered what is being left undone. Does building supervision, for instance, mean merely taking care of day-to-day necessities, and of emergencies as they arise; or is there a program for maintenance, and effort at enlisting the brains and ability to carry it out? There would appear little doubt as to what sound and provident administration dictates.

Given an adequate appraisal of the ancillary functions and their demands, it may be time to apply more fully the division of labor. If that principle is valid in the world at large, and even in forming departments for processing and service in libraries, why not in distributing the auxiliary responsibilities.

It is not alone that the load of these responsibilities can be heavy, but that it is specialized, and specialized in several directions. Rarely can a librarian be expert and free to ply an expertness in a field other than his own, let alone in more than one such area. Even if he succeeded, he almost surely would end up as a less effective librarian than he was capable of being. Crowded by his schedule, diverted incessantly from his chief concern, and perhaps harassed personally, he would be put to it to keep his vision and perspective and to direct his energies most productively, granted that he managed to plow through mountains of work each day. It is relevant here that where an administrator feels any extraneous burden at all it is likely to include the several kinds of ancillary duties, since in a given library all tend to be treated alike. Logic indeed seems on the side of establishing the librarian first of all as a librarian; and in the case of the director as a generalist and coordinator—this in relation to auxiliary activities as well as to library procedures proper. Surely one step toward this

is for him to share his secondary responsibilities with persons proficient in them.

There are those, it is true, for whom the manipulating of a complicated instrument, and playing upon many keys and stops and controls, holds high interest. The contributions of such persons in the upbuilding and managing of libraries have been distinguished, and fortunately so in some situations. Perhaps what they have done, however, has been accomplished under handicaps that need not remain. And if to any the delegating of auxiliary responsibilities seems to leave librarianship with too little content, they may care to ponder the remark of a respondent in the inquiry who characterized the professional task as "primarily involved in continual evaluation and selection of book stock and those public services requiring an evaluative knowledge of library resources."

It is assumed of course that any librarian's central anxiety is the sufficiency of his institution. As regards secondary duties he may have been forced into an inconsistent role, and even be acquiescent in it. He is not warranted in complacency, however, nor in reluctance to question his efficacy, nor in neglect to discriminate between proper and alien elements in his work. Nor is he blameless if he fails to push his governing body and his clientele into dissatisfaction with the quality of library service they are apt to be getting.

If full acceptance of the division of labor is desirable, so may be further regard for the science of administration generally. A lay observer might well judge that this has lagged.

It may appear puzzling that as librarians have acquired and handled the literature of administration for patrons, so little has rubbed off and been applied in libraries. Apart from faults in allocating auxiliary duties, there are the cases in which the organization as a whole looks improvised. Again, there have been some in which personal direction has become entrenched, with action and even policies dependent upon the nod of the executive. There have been still others in which the views of management experts, and their studied and systematic approach to administration, have been suspected and spurned.

Perhaps the most plausible warrant in such instances, aside from the lack of resources for innovations, is the feeling that administration rests so heavily upon common sense and moment-to-moment adjustment that it holds little place for planning and programming. There is some ground for this in that the executive, although appearing to be in a position of command, still must take account of the preroga-

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tives and preconceptions of his governing body, see that the things are done which his subordinates may omit, and pick up the pieces when designs fall apart. He may drift into thinking that the more fluid things are kept the better.

However, accumulated knowledge can help in applying common sense. Systematic organization can routinize some matters and reduce improvising. Most of all, the study and experience of experts hardly can fail to throw light upon the administrative task and its problems. It would seem thus as though administrative science could contribute to a comprehensive understanding of ancillary functions, and encourage the handling of them through a sane division of labor. It conceivably could help toward defining the role of a head librarian, or even library administration.

ADDENDUM

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY OF AUXILIARY RESPONSIBILITIES IN LARGE LIBRARIES

As indicated in the paper, the aim of the study was to examine the management of certain auxiliary administrative duties in libraries supposedly of sufficient size to be handling them with some adequacy. The libraries considered constituted only a fraction of the total in the United States and Canada. Of the two categories embracing them the "unattached" group consisted almost wholly of city public libraries. The "attached" class comprised chiefly university libraries, but with a sprinkling of others; and it was included because of common knowledge that the libraries in it have to devote some attention to the ancillary activities even though they receive more or less help on the matter from associated agencies.

The libraries to be examined were selected on the thesis that a library system whose staff numbers seventy-five or more should have a special personnel officer. (See American Library Association. Public Libraries Division. Co-ordinating Committee on Revision of Public Library Standards. *Public Library Service*, 1956, p. 41.) Since some of the other ancillary responsibilities were believed to become pressing at least as early in a library's development as personnel management, this floor figure was taken as showing the cases apt to yield significant information for all.

In applying the criterion, the list of university libraries having full-time staffs of seventy-five or more was drawn from the American Library Association compilation "College and University Library Statistics, 1956-57" (see *College and Research Libraries*, 19: [55-58], Jan.

1958.) No school or college libraries, so far as known, maintain staffs of such numbers. For public libraries, including some in the attached group, the judgment that there may well be one staff member for each 2,500 residents in a service area suggests that the libraries having staffs of seventy-five or above, and which therefore should be considered, are those serving populations of 187,500 or better. (See *Public Library Service, supra*, p. 43, for the recommendation on this, and the sources cited in the footnote below* for the populations of service areas in the United States and Canada.) While there might be question whether this norm should be utilized uniformly for all public libraries (notably for county as well as for city libraries), it has been employed for want of anything more authoritative and because the variations among libraries hardly could render it fatally at fault. The few large reference libraries studied were included on the strength of knowledge of their size.

The count of libraries supposedly qualifying was 122. After they had been listed the data available in printed sources about their handling of auxiliary responsibilities were gathered, and an inquiry was sent to them asking, where the facts were not already in hand, for the titles of the officers charged with the main ancillary duties, the amount of time devoted to the activities by such persons, the quantity of help supplied to them by assistants, the relevant preparatory study and experience of the officers, their salary brackets, and comments by the reporters. Response or information was received from 113 libraries—fifty-nine unattached and fifty-four attached. In a dozen cases significant data remained lacking, whether because the libraries were small, or had little or no concern with the ancillary duties, or were so organized as not to be able to answer the questions, or for combinations of such reasons.

* United States. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Office of Education. *Statistics of Public Libraries in Cities with Populations of 100,000 or more*. Fiscal year 1956. (Circular 502) Mar. 1957.

United States. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Office of Education. *Statistics of County and Regional Libraries Serving Populations of 50,000 or more*. Fiscal year 1956. (Circular 506) July 1957.

Canadian Almanac and Directory for 1958. pp. 441-446.

Departments in Public Libraries

GERTRUDE E. GSCHEIDLE

IT SEEMS UNNECESSARY in this paper to review in any detail the early developments of departmentation in public libraries. The three major areas of library activities, i.e., public service, the acquisition and preparation of materials, and the auxiliary or business functions, were recognized early in American library history. The division of these major activities into departments as libraries grew in size, for example; the emergence in public service of departments based on age group (adult and children's departments); departments based on function (reference and circulation departments); the separation of order work and cataloging in the technical processes; the establishment of building maintenance and financial management as departmental units; have been adequately described by K. D. Metcalf,¹ E. W. and John McDiarmid,² L. F. Ranlett,³ and others.

Departmental organization as a tool or device of administration is essentially a function of size. It was not until the early decades of the twentieth century, when large book collections developed, volume of use expanded, and extensive extension systems came into existence, that the basic principles of scientific management, as set forth by such authorities in administration as L. H. Gulick and L. F. Urwick,⁴ and H. Fayol,⁵ were studied with interest by librarians and were focused on the problems of library organization.

Out of the pressure of size, and the application of the principles of organization to the problems of library administration, experiments in departmentation developed and new patterns of organization were created. Two examples are the emergence of subject departmentation for adult service as described by Althea Warren,⁶ and the combining of a group of similar departments into a division with a divisional head as described by Donald Coney.⁷ Such new patterns have over the years won general acceptance, and their existence in the organizational structure of large public libraries is now widespread.

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As is characteristic of the course of organizational development, the early trends were all divisional in nature, i.e., the breaking off of functions or activities from the whole and establishing them as separate departments. When a considerable number of departments were thus created, administrative attention and concern moved from dividing to coordinating—that is, binding the separate parts together to establish a cohesive organizational framework through which the objectives of the institution could be efficiently and effectively achieved. This trend is apparent in the increase of major administrative divisions in large public libraries, and in the growing number of libraries which now have staff members with the title of "coordinator" for broad areas of services or activities.

In order to analyze the prevailing patterns of departmental organization, to trace the course of their development, and to isolate apparent trends, eighteen public libraries, each serving populations in excess of 500,000, were asked to participate by providing the following:

1. The present organization chart.
2. Organization charts for the past two decades.
3. Comments on the merits and demerits of the present plan, and on any problems which exist in its operation.
4. Indications of any changes in organization contemplated for the near future.

Sixteen of the eighteen libraries responded, and the material submitted is included in the following analysis. The sixteen libraries are those of the cities of Baltimore, Boston, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Chicago, Cincinnati, Detroit, Houston, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Queens Borough, St. Louis, and Washington, D. C.

No effort was made to sample the departmental structure of small and medium-sized libraries. Since the evolution of departmental organization is essentially a function of size, as previously pointed out, all libraries, small, medium, and large, pursue the same evolutionary course. The departmental development of the small and medium-sized library tends to stop at the point appropriate to its size. New trends and developments occur in the larger institutions when such changes are impelled by increasing size, complexity, and diversity of functions.

A first point of interest is the amount of organizational change which has taken place in the last decade and a half, roughly since 1945. Does this period constitute a plateau where organizational patterns

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were static, or is it one in which considerable development has been taking place? The organization charts of twelve of the sixteen libraries, and the accompanying comments of the chief librarians, indicate that there has been considerable change. In four of the sixteen libraries, the organizational framework has been relatively static except for such alterations as occur normally in any library when a new type of material or collection is added, or when a change in personnel at the department head level occurs. It is of further interest to note that in the twelve libraries where considerable organizational activity appeared either a new head librarian took charge or there was some development in building, through remodeling, new construction, or planned construction.

What has been the motivation for the new features? An analysis of the organization charts indicates that the major changes have been of two types, both designed to tighten administrative control and increase coordination.

The first type of organizational change has been the creation of major administrative divisions under the direction of an administrative officer at the second or third level. The number and type vary greatly from one library to another, and a clear pattern is not easily discernible.

Only one library (the smallest in the group) has no major administrative divisions of any kind. The number of such divisions, as indicated in the organization charts of the remaining fifteen libraries, ranges from one to five.

The following table shows the frequency with which the most common types of administrative divisions occur:

Branches or Extension	10
Central Library Public Services	7
Administrative Services	6
(Business, building maintenance, and some technical processes)	
Technical Processes	6
(Two include lending)	
Reference	4
(Central library, or central library and branches)	
Circulation or Home Reading	4
(Central library and branches)	

Work with Children
(Central library and branches)

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Business management, personnel management, public relations, and building maintenance are functions most frequently found as separate departments outside the divisional organization, although in some libraries the heads of these areas are coordinate with the heads of divisions.

The second type of organizational change has been the creation of positions with the title "coordinator." It would appear from the placement of these positions on the organization charts that they involve staff officers in some instances and line officers in others, but in all cases they are responsible for developing and unifying broad areas of service or activities. Ten of the sixteen libraries now show such positions on their organization charts. The area and frequency for which coordinative positions are shown are as follows:

Children's Service	7
Adult Service	6
Young Adult Service	6
Central Library Service	2
Senior Adult Service	1
Cataloging	1
Order Work	1

What effect has the creation of major administrative divisions and the establishment of coordinative positions had on the span of control of the chief librarian? The following is the range of this factor (total number of persons reporting to the chief librarian) as indicated in the organization charts of the sixteen public libraries:

<i>Range of Span</i>	<i>Number of Libraries</i>
3-5	4
6-10	4
11-15	6
Over 15 (18)	2

In 1943, E. W. and John McDiarmid⁸ reported the span of control in thirty-two large public libraries. In twenty-seven of the thirty-two libraries, from fifteen to sixty-four branches and departments reported directly to the chief administrator. One definite development in administrative organization is therefore clearly the decrease in span of

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control for top administrators through the creation of major divisions and/or coordinative positions under the direction of top-level personnel.

Subject departmentation for adult service is now a generally accepted type of organization in large public libraries. The organization charts indicate that all sixteen libraries have some subject departments and that ten of the sixteen libraries have from five to nine major subject departments. Any prevailing trends in reference to subject departmentation were indicated in the comments of chief librarians rather than in the organization charts. Current thinking seemingly is directed toward fewer subject departments covering broader subject areas, closer integration of subject divisions, and devices (such as reclassification) to overcome the fact that standard classification plans do not bring materials together in terms of reader needs and use, hence result in some confusion and frustration on the part of readers and/or considerable duplication of books. In this connection, one chief librarian⁹ commented:

We would not want more subject departments if we were planning a new building.

Subject departmentalization has, I think, been carried too far in many cities. . . . subject departments with their extra cost and inconvenience to the general reader are justified only when (a) there is a specialized body of knowledge with which the general librarian cannot deal intelligently, and, just as important, (b) there is local demand for expert service in the field.

Pertinent comments on the integration of subject departments are included in several articles by H. N. Peterson^{10, 11, 12} in relation to the reorganization of the District of Columbia Public Library. If any trend can be cited in reference to subject departmentation, and this may be pure conjecture, it would seem to be toward fewer departments based upon broad subject areas built around a careful analysis of reader interest and use, rather than on a fixed classification plan.

As noted above, six of the sixteen libraries have consolidated all technical processes into one administrative division. Any trends in reference to this practice can also be discerned only through the comments included in the correspondence. One Chief Librarian⁹ said—"Book purchasing and cataloging call for entirely different bodies of knowledge and skills. I see no gain in combining the two departments under 'Processing' except in libraries so large that an additional ad-

ministrator is required to relieve the director." Another administrator¹³ commented as follows on this type of organization—"Formerly we had a Director of Processing Services, which included Book Selection, Cataloging, Bindery. We found, however, that we had either a Cataloger or a Book Selection person, usually a cataloging specialist. So we did away with the position and put the Bindery under the Business Director."

Five of the sixteen libraries now have established regional branches but in only one do the regional librarians have complete administrative control of the extension system. In the others, responsibility for the administration of branches rests with a supervisor of branches, chief of extension, or assistant librarian, under whose general direction the regional librarians function.

As already stated, in seven of the sixteen libraries the planning and development of children's work are carried on through a coordinative position. In three of the sixteen, a children's department supervises children's work throughout the system. In one, children's work is administered by four supervisors of work with children, one for each regional district and one for the central library. In the remaining libraries the supervision of work with children is carried on within a major administrative division. Eleven of the sixteen make some provision for specialized services for young adults, usually through the position of coordinator.

Is there a typical or generally accepted plan of organization for large public libraries? A study of the organization charts indicates that there are many similarities and as many diversities. Certain types of administrative features, such as major administrative divisions, coordinative positions, and regional branches, have had considerable acceptance and appear in many organization plans, but no one organization scheme incorporates all of them in precisely the same way. The development of organization is an evolutionary process. In this connection E. Peterson and E. G. Plowman¹⁴ say:

Just as the organization chart of one business differs from that of another, so does the organization of an individual concern differ from time to time. Hence, it is difficult to draw an accurate organization chart of even a medium-sized business. Organization details change almost daily. Much of the actual organization of the moment results from give-and-take within the executive group and from the management problems which are uppermost. . . .

If management were completely scientific, it would be possible to

Departments in Public Libraries

outline the one best organization for a given business at a given time. . . . the organization of one concern would tend to conform more and more closely to a general pattern, which would be found to prevail in the particular field or class of institutions of which it was a part.

There is such a characteristic pattern of departmental organization for every type of business, at least in broad and basic outline. A certain typical arrangement of departmentation has evolved out of experience and has been generally accepted. It is perpetuated by the transfer of trained executives from one business enterprise to another within the field. It evolves gradually through experimental organizational modification by executives who are, at the moment, regarded as leaders of the industry or business.

In this connection it may be noted that certain characteristics of organization in large public libraries can be traced through the movement of chief administrators from one library system to another.

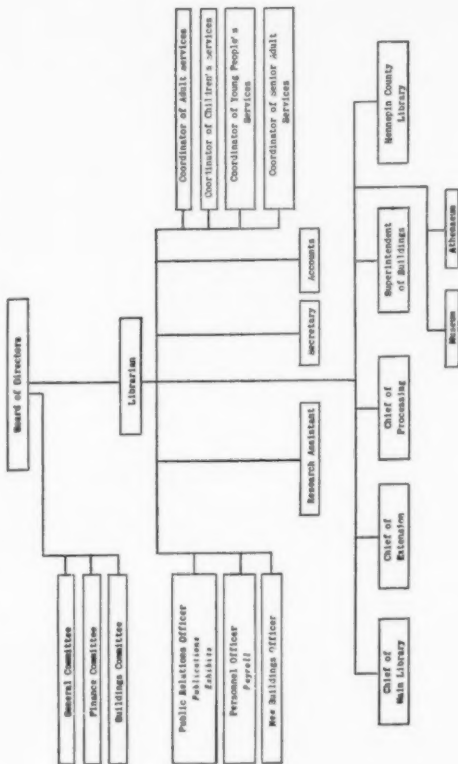
In the process of evolving an organization observance of scientific principles of management is one of the aims, but in actual practice, this is tempered by administrative feasibility, which brings into play such factors as the personality and characteristics of the chief administrator; the traditions, background, and prevailing scheme of organization of the institution; the size, capacities and personalities of the staff; and the needs of the clientele the library serves. An interesting study in the ways in which organizational changes take place in a large library system is presented in the *Ten Year Report of the New York Public Library*, published in 1957.¹⁸

It would be desirable to reproduce all of the organization charts of the sixteen public library systems gathered in the study. However, many of them are not adaptable to reproduction. Therefore, five were selected, those of Chicago, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, Philadelphia, and New York. They illustrate many of the organizational features cited above, and present a cross-section of present administrative organization in large public libraries.

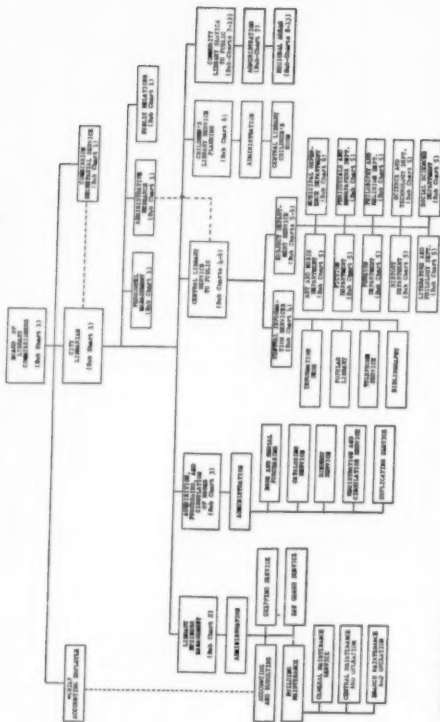
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Departments in Public Libraries

Minneapolis Public Library NEW ORGANIZATION PATTERN EFFECTIVE JANUARY 1, 1958



City of Los Angeles Library Department
SUMMARY ORGANIZATION CHART, MARCH 1957



**Transactions required by Chapter
duties performed by Principal
Accountant
(Sub Sheet 2)**

ACCOUNTING OFFICE

CONTROLS RECORDS AND AUDITS DISBURSEMENTS AND PREPARES VOUCHER CHECKS. PREPARES AND AUDITS PAYROLLS, VERIFIES TIME SHEETS AND RECORDS TAX AND PENSION PAYMENTS. KEEPS DETAILED OR SUMMARY ACCOUNTS OF CASH RECEIPTS FROM CITY AND OTHER SOURCES. PREPARES BUDGET REQUEST FORMS AND REGULAR FINANCIAL REPORTS.

SPECIALIZED SERVICE OFFICES

OFFICE OF ADULT SERVICES

COORDINATES AND RECOMMENDS POLICY FOR ALL WORK WITH ADULTS. RECOMMENDS ADULT MATERIALS, COMPILES, COMPLETES, AND EDITS ADULT PUBLICATIONS, TRAILS, LITERATURE IN BOOK REVIEWING, READING, GUIDANCE, AND ADULT SCHOOL AND GROUP WORK. PLANS, CONDUCTS PROGRAMS, MAINTAINS LIAISON WITH OTHER LIBRARY OFFICES. REPRESENTS THE LIBRARY TO ADULT-SERVING AGENCIES, GIVES INFORMATION AND ADVICE ON ADULT BOOKS AND READING INTERESTS.

OFFICE OF CHILDREN'S SERVICES

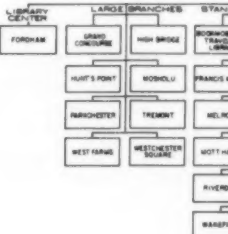
COORDINATES AND RECOMMENDS POLICY FOR ALL WORK WITH CHILDREN. APPROVES CHILDREN'S MATERIALS, COMPILES AND EDITS PUBLICATIONS, TRAILS, LITERATURE IN BOOK REVIEWING, READING, GUIDANCE, STORY TELLING, SCHOOL AND GROUP WORK, PLANS, CONDUCTS PROGRAMS, MAINTAINS LIAISON WITH OTHER LIBRARY OFFICES. REPRESENTS LIBRARY TO AGENCIES WORKING WITH CHILDREN, GIVES INFORMATION AND ADVICE ON CHILDREN'S BOOKS AND READING INTERESTS.

OFFICE OF YOUNG ADULT SERVICES

COORDINATES AND RECOMMENDS POLICY FOR ALL WORK WITH YOUNG ADULTS. APPROVES YOUNG ADULT MATERIALS, COMPILES AND EDITS PUBLICATIONS, TRAILS, LITERATURE IN BOOK REVIEWING, READING, GUIDANCE, SCHOOL AND GROUP WORK, PLANS, CONDUCTS PROGRAMS, MAINTAINS LIAISON WITH OTHER LIBRARY OFFICES. REPRESENTS LIBRARY TO YOUTH-SERVING AGENCIES, GIVES INFORMATION AND ADVICE ON YOUNG ADULT BOOKS AND READING INTERESTS.

READERS' ADVISER

PROVIDES BIBLIOGRAPHICAL, PROGRAM PLANNING, VOCATIONAL, AND EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS, AND INFORMATION AND ADVICE ON ADULT BOOKS AND READING INTERESTS FOR INDIVIDUALS, ORGANIZATIONS, AND BRANCH LIBRARIES. COMPLETES SUBJECT BOOK LISTS AND EDITS BRANCH LIBRARY BOOK NEWS AND OTHER PRINTED LISTS.



THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY CIRCUL

BOARD OF TRUST

DIRECTOR

G E

ING OFFICE

DISBURSEMENTS AND
PAID AND AUDITS PAYROLLS,
AND TAX AND PENSION
SUMMARY ACCOUNTS OF CASH
SOURCES, PREPARES BUDGET
FINANCIAL REPORTS.

REFERENCE DEPARTMENT OFFICE

FORMULATES POLICY, DIRECTS AND COORDINATES ACTIVITIES
APPROVES MATERIALS FOR SELECTION ON BEHALF OF BOARD
OF TRUSTEES, MAINTAINS LIAISON WITH LIBRARY UNITS.
REVIEWS POLICIES AND PROGRAMS; COORDINATES APPROPRIATE
BUDGET PREPARATION.

CIRCULATION DEPARTMENT

FORMULATES POLICY, DIRECTS AND COORDINATES
APPROVES MATERIALS FOR SELECTION ON BEHALF OF BOARD
OF TRUSTEES, MAINTAINS LIAISON WITH LIBRARY
DEPARTMENTS, REVIEWS POLICIES AND PROGRAMS,
APPROPRIATE BUDGET PREPARATION.

BOROUGH ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICES

ING ADULT SERVICES

ADVISES POLICY FOR ALL WORK
PROVES YOUNG ADULT
NO EDITOR PUBLICATIONS
BOOK REVIEWING, READING
GROUP WORK, PLANS, CONDUCTS
ALSO WITH OTHER LIBRARY
BRARY TO YOUTH-SERVING
ATION AND ADVICE ON YOUNG
NE INTERESTS.

BRONX BOROUGH OFFICE

COORDINATES OPERATIONS AND SERVICES OF BRONX
BRANCH LIBRARIES, MANAGES PERSONNEL, SECTIONS
MAINTAINS LIAISON WITH OTHER LIBRARY OFFICES.

RICHMOND BOROUGH OFFICE

COORDINATES OPERATIONS AND SERVICES OF RICHMOND
BRANCH LIBRARIES, MANAGES PERSONNEL, SECTIONS
MAINTAINS LIAISON WITH OTHER LIBRARY OFFICES.

ADULT
SERVICE SECTION

ADVISES ON ADULT SERVICES
AND DEVELOPMENT OF BRANCH
BOOK COLLECTIONS, PARTICI-
PATES IN PERSONNEL, DECISIONS,
DEVELOPS BOROUGH ADULT BOOK
COLLECTION TO SUPPLEMENT
BRANCH COLLECTIONS.

CHILDREN'S
SERVICE SECTION

ADVISES ON CHILDREN'S SERVICES
AND DEVELOPMENT OF BRANCH
BOOK COLLECTIONS, PARTICI-
PATES IN PERSONNEL, DECISIONS,
DEVELOPS BOROUGH CHILDREN'S
BOOK COLLECTION TO SUPPLE-
MENT BRANCH COLLECTIONS.

ADULT
SERVICE SECTION

ADVISES ON ADULT SERVICES
AND DEVELOPMENT OF BRANCH
BOOK COLLECTIONS, PARTICI-
PATES IN PERSONNEL, DECISIONS,
DEVELOPS BOROUGH ADULT BOOK
COLLECTION TO SUPPLEMENT
BRANCH COLLECTIONS.

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ADVISES ON
AND DEVELOPMENT OF BRANCH
BOOK COLLECTIONS, PARTICI-
PATES IN PERSONNEL, DECISIONS,
DEVELOPS BOROUGH ADULT BOOK
COLLECTION TO SUPPLEMENT
BRANCH COLLECTIONS.

YOUNG ADULT
SERVICE SECTION

ADVISES ON YOUNG ADULT
SERVICES AND DEVELOPMENT
OF BRANCH BOOK COLLECTIONS,
PARTICIPATES IN PERSONNEL,
DECISIONS, DEVELOPS BOROUGH
YOUNG ADULT BOOK COLLECTION
TO SUPPLEMENT BRANCH
COLLECTIONS.

YOUNG ADULT
SERVICE SECTION

ADVISES ON YOUNG ADULT
SERVICES AND DEVELOPMENT
OF BRANCH BOOK COLLECTIONS,
PARTICIPATES IN PERSONNEL,
DECISIONS, DEVELOPS BOROUGH
YOUNG ADULT BOOK COLLECTION
TO SUPPLEMENT BRANCH
COLLECTIONS.

LARGE BRANCHES

HIGH BRIDGE

PORT

TRINITY

WESTCHESTER SQUARE

STANDARD BRANCHES

ROCKWELL & TRAVELING LIBRARY

FRANCIS MARTIN

MELROSE

MOTT HAVEN

RIVERDALE

WATERFIELD

SMALL BRANCHES

CLASBORN POINT

KINGSBRIDGE

MORRISAWA

PELHAM PARKWAY

SEDGWICK

SPRINGFIELD

LIBRARY CENTER

ST GEORGE

LARGE BRANCH

GREAT HILLS

PORT RICHMOND

TOTTENHALL

WOODLAWN HEIGHTS

WYCKOFF

WYCKOFF

STANDARD BRANCHES

RICHMOND TRAVELING LIBRARY

PORT RICHMOND

STAPLETON

WEST NEW BRITAIN

WYCKOFF

WYCKOFF

VOL

7

3

XUM

PERSONNEL OFFICE

FORMULATES POLICIES AND REGULATIONS RESPECTING PERSONNEL ACTION, COORDINATES AND REVIEWS RECRUITMENT, SELECTION, PLACEMENT, TRAINING AND PROMOTION OF ALL EMPLOYEES, SUPERVISES EMPLOYEE BENEFIT AND WELFARE, ORGANIZES LEAVES AND PROCEEDURES, SERVICE, NATURALIZATION PROGRAMS, AND PERSONNEL RECORDS FILES AND INQUIRES.

PUBLIC RELATIONS OFFICE

PARTICIPATES IN THE FORMULATION OF POLICY AFFECTING THE PUBLIC DISSEMINATES INFORMATION ABOUT THE LIBRARY AND ITS SERVICES THROUGH THE MEDIA OF THE PRESS, TELEVISION AND RADIO, AND THROUGH THE PREPARATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMATIONAL EXHIBITS, POSTERS, AND PAMPHLETS.

TECHNICAL SERVICE OFFICES

ACQUISITION OFFICE

ACQUIRES AND INQUIRES
S BRANCH ORDERS
SPECIAL BRANCHES;
RECORDS AND
VOLUMES FOR
PROTECTIVE ACETATE
ON NAMES.

BOOK ORDER OFFICE

ACQUIRES BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, PERIODICALS, MUSIC, PICTURES, PHOTOGRAPHY RECORDS, AND FILMS, ALISTS EXPENDITURE OF BRANCH BOOK ALLOTMENTS, OBTAINS EXAMINATION COPIES OF BOOK TITLES AND REVIEWS AS GUIDES IN BOOK SELECTION.

CATALOGING OFFICE

CATALOGS AND CLASSIFIES ALL BOOKS AND MATERIALS ASSIGNED SUBJECT HEADINGS AND BIBLIOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTIONS; RECORDS ACQUISITIONS AND UPDATES IN UNION CATALOG.

ACQUISITION SECTION

RECORDS VOLUMES FOR PUBLIC
7TH STREET RECORDS AND
SECTION NAMES.

PROCUREMENT SECTION

ACQUIRES AND PROCURES FOR
BRANCH ORDERS, BOOKS,
PAMPHLETS, PERIODICALS, MUSIC,
PICTURES, PHOTOGRAPHY RECORDS,
AND FILMS.

RECEIVING AND FORWARDING SECTION

RECEIVES BOOKS, PAMPHLETS,
PERIODICALS, MUSIC, PICTURES,
PHOTOGRAPHY RECORDS, AND
FILMS, PROCURES APPROPRIATE
INVOICES.

CATALOGING SECTION

CLASSIFIES AND CATALOGS ALL
BOOKS AND MATERIALS ASSIGNED
SUBJECT HEADINGS AND BIBLIOGRAPHIC
DESCRIPTIONS.

PREPARATION AND RECORDING SECTION

CHIEF CATALOG CARD
RECORDS, BOOKS, PICTURES,
RECORDS ACQUISITIONS AND
UPDATES IN UNION CATALOG.

STANDARD BRANCHES



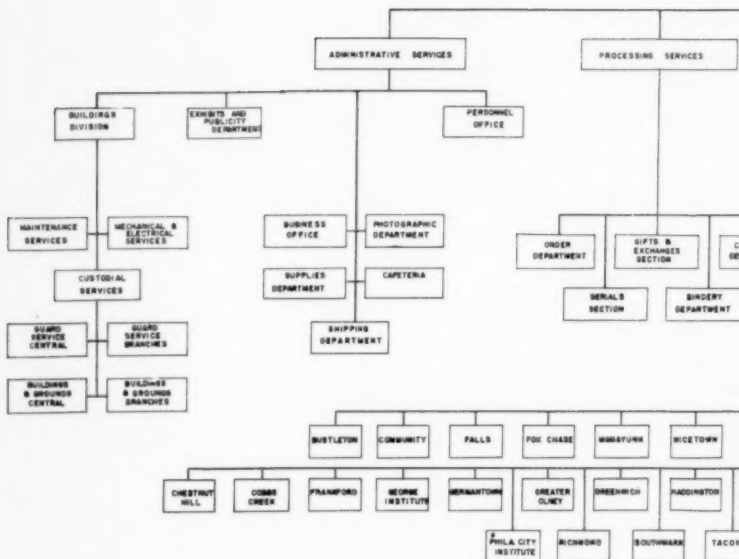
THE FREE LIBRARY OF PHILADELPHIA

ORGANIZATION CHART

OCTOBER 20, 1953

BOARD

14 MEMBERS
ONE THIRD
3 EX-OFFICIO
THE MAYOR
PRESIDENT
PRESIDENT
THIS BOARD



FREE LIBRARY BOARDS

BOARD OF DIRECTORS 17

CHARTER 1891

14 MEMBERS ELECTED FOR THREE YEAR TERM
ONE THIRD BEING ELECTED EACH YEAR
3 EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS -
THE MAYOR
PRESIDENT OF CITY COUNCIL
PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION
THIS BOARD IS SELF-PERPETUATING

BOARD OF TRUSTEES 23

LOCAL ORDINANCES 1894, 1895
STATE LAWS 1895, 1903, 1917, AND 1927
18 LIFE MEMBERS
1 EX-OFFICIO MEMBER
COMMISSIONER OF THE BUREAU OF RECREATION
FOUR MEMBERS APPOINTED BY THE MAYOR

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

PROCESSING SERVICES

SALES
TION

GIFTS &
EXCHANGES
SECTION

CATALOG
DEPARTMENT

BINDERY
DEPARTMENT

EXTENSION
DIVISION

OFFICE OF WORK
WITH
CHILDREN

SEPARATIONS

OFFICE OF WORK
WITH
YOUNG ADULTS

BRANCHES (41)

BOOKMOBILE

STATIONS
DEPARTMENT

BOOKMOBILE #1

CLASS I (13)

AMATUNK

WICETOWN

PASSTUNK

QUEEN
MEMORIAL

ROBINET

R. W. RYERS

ST. MARTIN
HOUSE

S. PHILA.

SPRING
GARDEN

CLASS II (28)

KEEWICHA

HADDINSTON

HOLMESBURG

HEMBINGTON

HUMBERSTONE

LEHIGH

LOHAN

A. LOVETT
MEMORIAL

MC PHERSON

CLASS III (1)

BUSHWOOD

* ADMINISTERED BY THE FREE LIBRARY

XUM

FREE LIBRARY BOARDS

BOARD OF DIRECTORS 17

CHARTER 1891

14 MEMBERS ELECTED FOR THREE YEAR TERM
ONE THIRD BEING ELECTED EACH YEAR
3 EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS -
THE MAYOR
PRESIDENT OF CITY COUNCIL
PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION
THIS BOARD IS SELF-PERPETUATING

BOARD OF TRUSTEES 23

LOCAL ORDINANCES 1894, 1895
STATE LAWS 1895, 1903, 1917, AND 1927
18 LIFE MEMBERS
1 EX-OFFICIO MEMBER
COMMISSIONER OF THE BUREAU OF RECREATION
FOUR MEMBERS APPOINTED BY THE MAYOR

SUMMARY OF

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR
ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES
PROCESSING SERVICES
PUBLIC SERVICES
TOTAL

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

PROCESSING SERVICES

PUBLIC SERVICES

EXTENSION DIVISION

ASSISTANTS

OFFICE OF WORK WITH CHILDREN

OFFICE OF WORK WITH YOUNG ADULTS

OFFICE OF WORK WITH ADULTS

GIFTS & EXCHANGES SECTION

CATALOG DEPARTMENT

BRANCHES (41)

BOOKMOBILE

STATIONS DEPARTMENT

BOOKMOBILE #1

REFERENCE

PUBLIC SERVICES DEPARTMENT

REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

INFORMATION DEPARTMENT

CLASS E (13)

MARSHALL

MICETOWN

PASSTURK

QUEEN MEMORIAL

RODNEY

R. W. RIVERS

ST. MARTIN'S HOUSE

S. PHILA.

SPRING GARDEN

STARR

HESKETH

CLASS B (28)

BREEMCH

HADGHTON

HOLMESBURG

KENNINGTON

KNIBBSBURG

LEHIGH

LOGAN

* LOVETT MEMORIAL

MC PHERSON

OAK LAKE

PRINCETON

WINDY

SOUTHWARK

TACONY

WARNER INSTITUTE

W. PHILA.

WIDENER

WYOMING

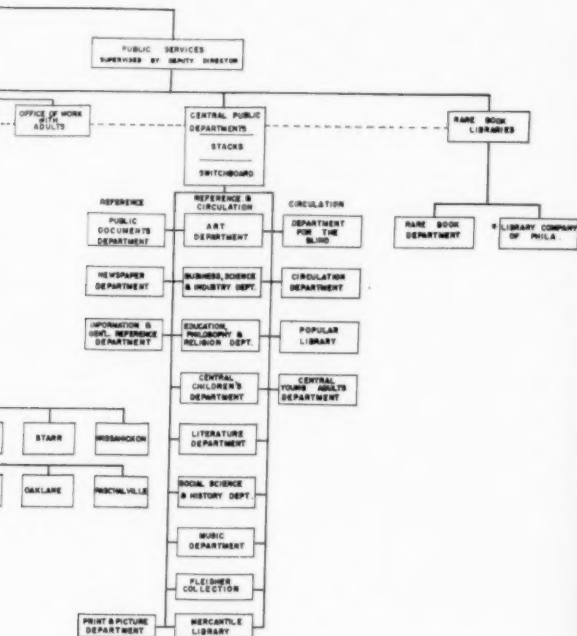
CLASS XXX (1)

BUSHROD

* ADMINISTERED BY THE FREE LIBRARY

PRINT & PICT. DEPARTMENT

SUMMARY OF STAFF	1953	1954
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR	10	10
ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES	190	190
PROCESSING SERVICES	88	98
PUBLIC SERVICES	484	490
TOTAL	890	898



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Library Science
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Departments in Public Libraries

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Departments in University Libraries

ARTHUR M. McANALLY

THIS STUDY OF DEPARTMENTS in university libraries covers both the units of operation and the system by which they are controlled and coordinated. In management terms, the former represents division of work, the latter organization. It is not practicable to study departments without at the same time considering how the units will work together. The term department also should be defined: it is applied in libraries to a major unit of a certain size, although this varies widely according to size of the library. Both line and staff units are included. The term section normally refers to a subdivision of a department, and the term division to a combination of two or more departments, subject to some diversity in practice.

In order to discover trends in organization, the literature of management, both theoretical and institutional, was explored first in the belief that this would prove more fruitful than the study of university library organization alone. Although the literature of library management is respectable in both quantity and in quality, greater progress in the study of organization has been achieved in other fields, for several reasons.

First of all, when compared to organizations in business or industry or government, a university library is a small operation. Only three such libraries in the United States have as many as three hundred full-time employees, and none more than four hundred. Only three others have between two hundred and three hundred, and the median number of staff members in the 112 libraries which are listed in the annual statistics in *College and Research Libraries* is 55.¹ Qualifying these figures are the facts that several library collections now total over two million volumes, and that a library's immediate customers may total in the twenty and thirty thousands.

Again, the results of library operations cannot be measured readily nor in terms of dollars and cents; a library does not have profit to drive it on nor to use for measurement. Business, moreover, has a

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Departments in University Libraries

great deal more money and manpower to spend in analysis and study of itself than institutions possess; and more practicing management consultants, as well as faculty members within universities, are interested in the theoretical exploration of management in government, business, and industry than in comparable investigation affecting other agencies.

Also, a university library is a very complex organization, and one difficult to study. It deals with symbolic materials which are not and cannot be standardized; it serves two clienteles, one of which is highly professionalized and individualistic; and it is a captive agency within an institution which is itself somewhat unusual in terms of its management. For these reasons, and because the problems of administration increase with institutional growth, it would appear logical to assume that libraries may profit for some time yet from the study of management in other fields.

Most off-campus developments which may influence library organization are transmitted through the university itself, but a few exert influence directly on the library. For example, continuing expansion of knowledge and the increase in specialization as reflected in an upward spiral of publication cannot but accentuate the problem of storage, if a library maintains its proportionate rate of acquisition. Some technological developments that may bear on libraries include machines for translating, a cheap method of reproducing text without reduction in size, and machines for the storage and retrieval of information. Studies in the theory of documentation and communication also may be important. Television has come into prominence since 1950, and teletransmission text is now available, if only in a crude form. Regional and national approaches to the provision of information also are being explored.

Within universities, the impending tidal wave of students will have tremendous impact upon libraries. Predictions are that enrollment will enlarge more than 100 per cent within twelve years, partly because of the growth in the population of college age people, and partly because of an increase in the proportion who attend college.² Expanding numbers may be expected to focus attention on service to undergraduates and off-campus storage of some library materials, and lead to continued dispersal of resources for research.³ Physical facilities certainly will influence library organization, since "in a time of rising enrollment, building space becomes the most important single determinant of a university library's organization."⁴ Many states may add branches to

existing universities, with attendant problems of coordination, as well as extend existing campuses. New subjects, new schools, and larger instructional and research units may be expected, as well as experiments with larger classes, audio-visual aids, and other methods of coping with greater numbers.

The popularization of opportunities for higher education will bring an emphasis in the curriculum on content of contemporary significance. Universities also will have to make students more responsible for their own education. Along with this trend toward social goals there will be increased emphasis on utilitarian subjects and upon professional schools. Sputniks and utilitarianism together will tend to build up interest in science and technology. Universities also are giving more attention to the "whole" student by providing housing and specialized services, as well as by bringing extracurricular activities into their field of interest.⁵

Many of the changes in university educational policies expected during the next few years will affect libraries. "One of the abiding problems of library planners is to find out where the enterprises of which their libraries are a part are going."⁶ Long range planning will require renewed effort to discover institutional plans and to forecast educational developments, which the decentralization of authority in academic affairs may render difficult.

One major problem of an institution undoubtedly will be shared by its library—the financial pinch. Finances never rise as fast as enrollments. As a matter of fact, the compensation of professors barely has held its own since 1900 in terms of purchasing power, while salaries in many other fields have doubled and more.⁷ Ever-tightening finances during the next twelve years, coupled with rising costs, undoubtedly will compel the library to examine its operations more and more closely.

Finally, expansion of faculty personnel and consequent increase in the number of administrative officers and non-academic personnel will accelerate. As suggested below in connection with schools, with the increasing size of a faculty, a greater proportion of the total staff probably must be given over to administration. And the multiplication of academic personnel in administration is as nothing compared to that of the non-academic.⁸ One effect of such growth has been the development of personnel schemes for everyone, including library staffs. Also, in many institutions the professional librarians have been granted faculty status, which affects organization.

Departments in University Libraries

Departmentation appears to be a neglected word in the literature of management. In connection with libraries, P. S. Howard has considered the idea it connotes as a part of the organizing function, and used it to designate "the arrangement of an organization into units having a definite personnel and performing a definite portion of the work."⁹ Donald Coney has viewed departmentation instead as a part of the planning function.¹⁰ The term is a convenient one, though perhaps inexact, and will be used in the present paper to designate the grouping of work into operating units, including the placement of both personnel and materials.

The term organization in the technical sense is applied to the establishing of coordinating activities, resulting in an administrative structure through which authority is delegated and control is exercised. It often is used loosely to include both division of work for production and the erection of a mechanism for control, and will be so used here for lack of a more suitable term. Organization has been used similarly as applied to libraries by both Howard and E. A. Wright.¹¹

A standard definition of the bases for division of work is that of L. H. Gulick, who identified four fundamental characteristics: (1) major purpose or function, (2) process or method used, (3) persons or things dealt with, and (4) place, or geography.¹² These were adapted to library terminology by both Coney and Howard. The most recent statement for the library profession is that of Wight, who lists the bases for departmentation as (1) function (acquisition, circulation, etc.), (2) activity or process (order, repair, etc.), (3) clientele, (4) geography, (5) subject (fine arts, chemistry, etc.), and (6) form of materials. Libraries are peculiar in having to take into account their collections, while the only base used in industry which the library list does not contain is that of time, as represented in the shifts in a factory.

Librarians have done little in analyzing or breaking down these bases into subdivisions. Coney in 1938 divided library materials according to physical characteristics into eight groups, which in the main are still acceptable.¹³ To these eight would need to be added now a new category, namely, such alternatives to or substitutes for books as slips or cards, as exemplified in Human Relations Area Files. An analysis according to content, while difficult, would be particularly useful for departmentation in the future, since there seems to be a trend towards subjects as the base for organization. Changes in the methods of storing and furnishing information, especially in small

discrete subject fields, ultimately may work a revolution in this area, but at present university libraries cannot afford them. As bearing upon such matters, very little is known about the learning process and not much about the qualitative aspects of reading. Further analyses of library processes also would be helpful.

Sometimes these bases for division coincide in determining an organization, but often they do not. Gulick stated in 1936 that, "There is apparently no one most effective system of departmentalism. . . . If an organization is erected about any of these four characteristics of work, it becomes immediately necessary to recognize the other characteristics in constructing the secondary and tertiary divisions of the work."¹⁴

Judgment has to be exercised in making divisions, and the advantage of a particular method of grouping as contrasted with others is seldom obvious. Unfortunately, administrative science has not progressed far since 1936 in providing criteria upon which a choice among alternative means may be based.¹⁵ Reference may be made to one such attempt, in terms of economic criteria, by Ernest Dale, a management engineer.¹⁶

The ideal or logical does not always prevail, however. Other factors may affect the departmentation of a library, which does not operate in a vacuum and seldom can start from scratch. Coney, improving upon Mary Parker Follett's terminology, refers to these as "the climate of administration." Some of them are quite influential and may override theoretical or ideal considerations. Putting together Coney's and Howard's lists, the following factors result: financial ability, size, variety of material, capacity of existing staff (as well as availability of other personnel), history of a library, accident, conditions in other libraries, the governmental structure, tools, and quarters. For the most part these are supplementary. Other factors, such as the existence of cooperative plans and coordination in higher education, could be added.

Bases of organization or departmentation must be distinguished from forms of organization, which establish lines of authority for supervision and coordination. Forms of organization are of three types: line, line-and-staff, and those completely functionalized. To these three some authorities would add a fourth, viz., group (multiple, committee) organization, which however seems a variant of the line-and-staff variety.

Line organization is taken from the military and now tends to be used only for small operations. The line-and-staff type is adopted

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widely in business and elsewhere. The strictly functional organization form, as developed by F. W. Taylor, is falling into disuse, partly because it is based largely upon technical efficiency and does not take into account certain personal factors. Group management is utilized by some of the largest corporations, such as DuPont and General Motors, and has proved highly effective with them. Academic administration in universities has some similarities to the group plan. All of these forms are discussed further in the next section.

It was concluded that the best way to conduct this study would be to discover trends in departmentation and organization in areas other than librarianship, then attempt to relate them to changes or thought in the library field. Some of the developments in administrative science generally relate to group size, span of control, informal organization, centralization-decentralization, divisionalization flexibility, democracy in management, advisory services, committees, and reorganization. They have a bearing upon organization, and are treated below.

Basic research of the first importance to management is being done on the dynamics of groups, and on the effectiveness of groups of varying sizes. This investigation is being performed in connection with social psychology, sociology, and cultural anthropology. A good summary of developments to date is that by Theodore Caplow.¹⁷

It has been known for some time that the relational complexity of small groups grows rapidly with small increases in numbers.¹⁸ The subject has been developed further by W. M. Kephart.¹⁹ Thus, a group of three persons has six interpersonal relationships, a group of four has 25, a group of five 90, a group of six 301, and a group of ten 29,268. Obviously this progression should have some bearing on the competency of groups.

Another approach has been to study the actual groups. It has been found that size may affect both the quality of performance and the amount of activity, influencing such factors as consensus, satisfaction, amount of dissension, and the number of ideas produced. Regarding participation by members of a task group it has been discovered that "if the volume of activity of each member is carefully measured and the members are ranked with the most active member first, the next most active member second, and so on, the volume of activity will be found to diminish at a predictable rate."²⁰ From the organizational standpoint, however, it has been stated that this diminishing of returns with increases in group size may not hold for all organizational types, since upper limits have not been proved to exist for all. Concerning

size, it has been ascertained that organizational stability apparently correlates directly with it. The common belief that the proportion of non-productive labor grows with increasing size has not been substantiated fully, though one study has proved the affirmative.²¹ Caplow concludes with a note of caution, however, saying: "We know just enough . . . about the effects of size on organizational structure to perceive that size is an important element in determining the way any human organization adapts to its environment and that the whole subject deserves closer study."²²

C. I. Barnard set the effective optimum size of a group as not over fifteen, stating: "In practice a limit of usually less than fifteen persons for a working group obtains, and for many types of cooperation five or six persons is the practicable limit."²³ His conclusions were based upon the bounds of effective leadership, which he believed to depend upon the complexity of purpose and technological conditions, the difficulty of the communication process, the extent to which communication is necessary, and the involvements of personal relationships. Any organization larger than fifteen he would call complex, and thus needs to be broken into two or more units.

It might not be amiss at this point to mention the theory of the ubiquitous "Colonel Parkinson," who states that work expands to fill the time available for its completion; and that due to the ambitions of supervisors a staff gains in size at a fixed annual rate regardless of the amount of work to be done.²⁴ He seems to favor a group of seven, as indicated by the title of his *Fortune* article, "How Seven Men Can Do the Work of One." The magic number for top size is 19, 20, or 21; beyond that lies disaster. His book is a good introduction to management in reverse and to bureaucracy, and provides a bit of spoofing that has been overdue.

From the beginnings of the study of management theory under Taylor and Henri Fayol there has been considerable uncertainty about the number of persons that one administrator could supervise effectively. Then V. A. Graicunas around 1933 developed his theory of the geometric progression of interpersonal relations as group size increased arithmetically. This formula was taken by some as a means of establishing the maximum size of the span of control of an executive. One of those who was most positive was L. F. Urwick, who stated that "No superior can supervise directly the work of more than five or, at the most, six subordinates whose work interlocks."²⁵ Others disagreed, some setting the maximum as high as twelve.

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On this point a study in 1952 under the American Management Association of the extent of the span of control in one hundred large companies and forty-seven smaller companies, all known to have good organization practices, revealed that the median number of subordinates "supervised" by the president was between eight and nine in the larger cases and between six and seven in the smaller. In some the span of control was over twenty. Speculating on these findings, Dale concluded in his report that perhaps the theoretical limits on span of control had been set too low, or that possibly the number who had access to the president was high but the number actually supervised less.²⁶

Dale's discovery precipitated a lively argument, which has helped to throw additional light on the subject. The two chief papers in the controversy are by W. D. Suojanen²⁷ and Urwick.²⁸ Suojanen said that "the span of control is no longer a valid principle of organization in view of the advances that have occurred in those social sciences that relate directly to administrative theory." According to him, the chief executive now only coordinates instead of supervises; business has become institutionalized; and informal primary groups now provide a high degree of control. Suojanen cited a recent study on executive time in Sweden, which had reached similar conclusions. Interestingly, as far back as 1938, both Coney and K. D. Metcalf had agreed that the librarian should only coordinate and not supervise,^{29, 30} and Metcalf had stated that the chief librarian had only about three hours a day to deal with the work of his immediate subordinates.³¹

Urwick countered Suojanen by saying that the survey was not precise, that Suojanen did not cite the so-called social developments, that "access" is not supervision, that general staff assistance did allow the chief executive to cope with a wider span of control, and that the principle had not been invalidated. The debate clarified definitions and gave an excellent review of the literature of the subject, but without settling the question.

In large university libraries, the administrative-divisional plan with its small span of control still predominates. However, the reorganization at Harvard in 1956 apparently increased the librarian's span from nine to twelve,³² and the Columbia reorganization of 1953 increased it there, partly "to strive for a maximum of direct communication—that is a relatively horizontal as opposed to a vertical organization."³³

The span of control probably should be extended to the point at which the advantages of delegation, in freeing the executive, are out-

weighed by costs of additional staff, supervision, and difficulties in communication. An increase is likely to mean further delegation of responsibility. For libraries, factors in determining the span have been identified speculatively by Wight as stability of the organization, ability of the officer, complexity of activities, the size of the operating units, the level in the hierarchy, and the geographic scatter of units.³⁴ To these should be added capacities of the staff and perhaps other factors.

Most library staffs presumably have not yet reached a size where the length of the chain of command becomes a critical element. The reductions effected by increasing the span of control at Harvard and Columbia are exceptional. They are two of the three university libraries with more than three hundred staff members.

Formal organization is deliberately impersonal, is based on ideal relationships, and has in the past been based on the "herd" or "rabble" hypothesis, especially in industry. Even there, however, the "rabble" hypothesis has given way to person-to-person concepts, and then has taken account of group relations.

It is recognized generally, however, that without the help of the informal organization the formal organization often would be ineffective. Recent years have seen the recognition of the existence and importance of informal organization and study of its characteristics. The study began with the Hawthorne experiments in the 1920's by Elton Mayo and others, and is being carried on very actively now. Informal organization may be defined as "the aggregate of the personal contacts and interactions and the associated groupings of people."³⁵ Its membership may be based on ethnic, religious, and other associations.

There is considerable discussion in the current literature of management on decentralization, due to the great expansion of business and industry. The larger the company, the more urgent the problem. Some confusions in terminology exist—decentralization is often taken to mean separation of facilities, a type of organization, or the delegation of decision-making. In the pure administrative sense, decentralization is the delegation of authority to the level where action takes place. The virtues and defects of centralization and decentralization are summarized well by H. A. Simon, and the reader is referred to that source for a good brief statement.³⁶

Most university librarians now have administrative control over all library units on their campuses, and the libraries may be said to be centralized administratively. The most frequent exceptions are those

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in which medical and law libraries are not included. Complete administrative centralization was achieved at the University of California at Berkeley in 1956, but examples in which it still does not exist are the libraries at Harvard and Cornell.

Decentralization of university libraries is not made necessary by size of library staffs, for even the largest are comparatively small. However, the question is being brought to the forefront in the large libraries by several factors, viz., the enormous size of some collections, a large and highly specialized clientele, a spread-out campus, and educational considerations. Perhaps the basic factor leading to the decentralization of monolithic library services and collections is the theory that the amount of use tends to be governed by the readiness of access to books.⁸⁷ The only exceptions to this tendency toward decentralization appear where the adoption of the subject-divisional approach coincides with a move into a new and spacious central building.

Librarians of many of the larger libraries, even those already having a number of branch or departmental libraries, have anticipated or are experiencing this pressure for decentralization. The reasons seem to be educational more than administrative, as proved at California at Berkeley, Michigan, and Stanford. The problem is stated well by R. C. Swank: "Decentralization along broad subject lines (as contrasted with narrow departmental lines) is desirable both administratively and educationally. There may be an optimum size of a library unit beyond which the service becomes too complex, impersonal, and mechanized. The optimum is, perhaps, a unit large enough to be efficient but small enough to retain some of the informality, accessibility, and special services of the good departmental library. The desired result is a compromise between an overgrown main library and an over-fragmented system of departmental libraries."⁸⁸ F. H. Wagman at Michigan states that "Ideally, combinations of the various divisional and departmental libraries should be made according to the relationships of their materials in the classification of knowledge. . . . It is more likely, however, that the geographic dispersal of the University's units will result in demands for more fragmentation. . . ."⁸⁹

Historically, university library operations were first divided into the four basic procedures of acquisition, integration, circulation, and reference. Compared to the earlier simple library in which everyone did some of everything, these were major specializations. As libraries became large and increasingly difficult to use, further specialization was introduced in terms of forms of material, entailing departments

for documents, serials, maps, and manuscripts, for example. Next librarians were compelled, partly by their faculties, to recognize that perhaps they had been preoccupied with internal problems, and ought to give more attention to needs of their clientele. This faculty pressure had existed for a long time as a demand for branch libraries. Consequently subject- or reader-centered departments were created to serve various groups, instances being branch libraries, undergraduate libraries, and browsing rooms. Sometimes branch libraries had been developed independently of main libraries or with the grudging consent of librarians ultimately rendering it hard to gain administrative control of such units.

It may be observed that whereas the first basis for departmentation was functional, and the second was forms of material, the last has been that of subject. This seems to indicate a shift from preoccupation with internal problems to an emphasis upon fields of instruction, and may indicate that the library will be more intimately concerned in the future with educational requirements. In one sense the focus has shifted from technical matters to reader problems, a vast and largely uncharted area filled with uncertainties. Technical responsibilities remain important in the modern university library, however.

The extensive proliferation of departments has created major problems in control and coordination. In addition to the large number and wide variety of units, it must be recognized that coordination in university library management is complicated and hampered by two other factors: first, libraries are low in mechanization and high in professionalization, and second, authority in academic affairs is decentralized. Incidentally, the trend toward academic status for professional librarians is symbolic, and can have major implications for librarianship.

In coping with coordination, two solutions have been tried. These are divisionalization, and the development of staff participation and especially the committee system. The divisional concept is discussed here, and the committee system in a subsequent section.

Divisionalization apparently was adopted first, beginning in the 1930's. It is the grouping of two or more related departments under one head responsible to the chief librarian. It is a means of dividing a large and monolithic organization into small and flexible units, with a view to recapturing some of the advantages of the small organization and at the same time minimizing the drawbacks that come with increasing size, diversity, and dispersion.

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Divisionalization can be according to function, such as technical processes; forms of material; geographical location; subject; or clientele. More than one base may be used, and often is. The adoption of functional and form-of-material bases obviously places major emphasis on procedures or materials, and divisionalization by subject, geography, or clientele on the customer. The first may be thought of as organization mainly for administrative purposes, the latter more in response to the needs of the clientele. Coney's 1938 statement of the administrative values and disadvantages in divisional organization are still pertinent,⁴⁰ and will not be reviewed here.

Although divisionalization for administrative purposes came first, divisionalization with reference to instructional purposes followed shortly thereafter. The idea was taken from the public library, where it had been in use for a long time. The subject-divisional plan according to Frank Lundy is "a way of organizing library materials and services around the broadest concepts of subject matter."⁴¹ Carl Hintz carries the definition further, saying: "Library service should be organized on a broad subject basis reflecting the major divisions of knowledge, the principal methods of instruction, and the needs of students and faculty."⁴²

The plan seems to be most applicable to university libraries of medium size, perhaps partly because it usually includes physical centralization in a main library building. However, the reference departments of some of the largest libraries have adopted the divisional approach. When geographic centralization is not involved, the plan may be suitable for even the largest library, though building costs may prevent its adoption. The literature of the subject is voluminous. A selection of informative articles are the early ones by Ralph Ellsworth, and recently those of Lundy, Hintz, G. D. Smith, P. D. Morrison, and Clarence Gorchels.

The subject-divisional plan of organization when carried to the ultimate extent constitutes a revolution in library organization. Subjects are substituted for functions as the chief base for specialization. Plans vary, however. Sometimes reference function is absorbed complete in the topical division, as at the University of Georgia; sometimes circulation is absorbed into the subject divisions, as at Nebraska at various times; and almost always some aspects of acquisition are withdrawn, especially a portion of the selection activity. The type is not standardized.

An especially interesting phase of some of the geographically cen-

tralized subject-divisional plans is the consolidation of both reference and cataloging operations into the divisional units, and the reduction or elimination of these common functional departments. Such action follows earlier proposals of Swank. The administrative reasons and problems in taking cataloging into the subject division as at Washington State and Nebraska are given by Hanna C. Krueger⁴³ and Kathryn R. Renfro.⁴⁴ The librarian at Nebraska also has stated that one of the purposes in incorporating cataloging there was to relieve the cataloging department, catalogers being hard to secure. Sometimes the divisional librarian also supervises branch libraries in his field.

Administratively, the library organized along subject-divisional lines usually has a span of control which extends to all division and department heads, and frequent meetings of this group with the librarian are characteristic. For this reason its organization may be effective in the training of junior executives.

Another method of organizing along topical lines may be identified as the loose or interspersed plan as used at Princeton, Iowa, Oklahoma, and Louisiana State. In that, all library materials are arranged in a logical subject order on open shelves with small reading areas scattered about. The number and size of service units as well as their location varies according to need. Reference functions also may be split, with apparently satisfactory results, as is the case at Oklahoma; and cataloging could be included, although that is not the case in any of the libraries using the plan. The arrangement also facilitates the separation of clerical and sub-professional processes from the professional by the use of centralized auxiliary services. It is much less formal and more flexible than the usual subject-divisional scheme, with its large formal reading areas and collections separated on the basis of use as well as of topic. Greater subject specialization also is possible. It can be speculated that in its geographically centralized form it may be effective for larger libraries than the geographically centralized subject-divisional plan.

A radical proposal which bears upon divisional arrangements would organize the clerical and sub-professional staff along functional lines in the operational part of a library, and the professional staff and collections along subject lines. Its author objects to the operational-subject schism which he says exists in some subject-divisional libraries, with the professional librarians left in the operational part. This accusation should not be justified in a properly organized subject plan, but he could not figure out how to supervise the professional half.⁴⁵ Per-

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haps the librarians could be assigned to instructional units. The proposal recalls the experiments with bibliographical assistants at Cornell and Pennsylvania, and brings to mind again faculty status of librarians in various universities. Barnard's *tour de force* demonstration that the methods of eliciting services from employees are also applicable to customers might be noted.⁴⁰

Incidentally, a great many of the large libraries recently have established divisions of special collections, to coordinate a variety of separate collections. A few examples are found at Columbia, Oregon, U.C.L.A., Stanford, Kansas, and New Mexico. Sometimes the manuscripts unit is left out of the fold, especially if it includes archives, as at Duke.

Flexibility or adaptability is now being stressed in business and industry, to make adaptation easier in a period of rapid social and technological change. Rigidly fixed departments tend to force activities into artificial channels without allowing the organization to adapt itself to its natural course. Departmentation might be right at the moment it was made, but the boundaries might be different the next minute. University libraries, like their parent institutions, tend to be quite conservative, but nevertheless changes in organization are becoming far more frequent than they used to be. Flexibility has been held as a key-note in handling responsibility in the library director's office at Columbia, and the three assistant librarians at California at Berkeley constitute a kind of staff group, with subordinates having the right to approach any one of them whether in the line function or not. The organizational flexibility of the loose or interspersed plan also should be mentioned.

It is now generally recognized that the nature of the American citizen affects organization and that one of his essential needs is for self-determination. The day of the aristocrat is waning, and that of the cooperative team is taking its place. "Participation, consultation, and information should be encouraged, even demanded, to the extent that they are possible within the framework of a reasonable amount of time."⁴¹ Increasing recognition of the importance of the personal and informal activity has tended to reduce somewhat the emphasis upon the formal organization. In administrative science, "the study of how to divide our common tasks into parts suitable for private practice, rather than of how to divide them for purposes of central and hierarchic control, confronts and challenges us."⁴²

The most remarkable development of the last fifteen years has been

the growth of the advisory staff concept, as expressed in committees. Sixteen organized committees, not all of them advisory of course, were identified in the library structure of California at Berkeley as of 1956,⁴⁹ and other libraries may have even more. Committees were established to achieve coordination, to promote cooperation, to provide advice and service and help, and for the training of junior executives. However, they also were set up in line with the personnel and group factors discussed above. Thus their purpose differs in some respects from that of the traditional staff function as developed in the Catholic church embodying "the right to be heard," and in the military.

The proper size for efficient committees has been discussed, as well as some other aspects of their operation, in connection with the size of groups. While the number of its members is an important factor in determining the usefulness of an advisory committee, one can hardly be precise as to optimum size. K. C. Wheare, who has made the most thorough study of the matter, says that if a committee is so large that its members have to stand up to address each other, it is unlikely to be effective,⁵⁰ and sets this number at twenty to thirty. Barnard, as has been mentioned, believes fifteen to be the upper limit. In actual practice committees that meet frequently tend to be much smaller than this. Libraries often have two councils, one larger than and including the membership of the other. Group management as practiced by DuPont and General Electric places the advisory function as a part of the policy making and governing boards.⁵¹

Other aspects of staff participation are the use of consultants, who provide an intermittent service, and of staff executives or assistants, who are found to an increasing extent in the large libraries. Auxiliary or specialized aid, dealing with financial and personnel requirements, is the subject of another paper in this issue of *Library Trends*.

Little attention has been given in the library profession to the dynamics of change. The literature of management contains a good deal on this matter, however; and it is worthy of study, for libraries are becoming more receptive to revisions, and could well consider what is known affecting it. Good treatments are those by Dale⁵² and L. A. Allen,⁵³ both practicing management engineers.

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Administration of Small Libraries

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A SMALL UNIVERSITY LIBRARY often seems large to a high school or special librarian, and the difference in size between very large and small public libraries is tremendous. The sophisticated librarian would cross off of his list many small libraries, of which there are tens of thousands, as not deserving the name "library." For this article, a search was made for a yardstick large enough to include the good small libraries without being big enough to get into many of the organizational problems plaguing large libraries. The one most suitable seemed to be that used by the McDiarmid study: " . . . those with staffs of less than ten people." Uppermost in mind, however, will be the small library that struggles along with only a few on the staff.

It seems reasonable to consider administration in terms of size rather than function, because many problems of administration are directly affected by the factor of size. As to the reason for small libraries, it is simply that they are ample for many needs. A small college, with a very limited undergraduate enrollment, certainly does not require the library plant essential in a large university. The village of five hundred population would find a big city library something of a white elephant if it were set down on Main Street. In special libraries, a small library is very important to a company involved in a lesser research program, and a library big enough to serve a large industrial complex would in no way be suited to it. Small libraries have their place, and a very important one in the total picture.

This article is concerned with administration in all kinds of small libraries. It will discuss the elements and principles of the administration of small libraries, using the outline employed by L. R. Wilson and M. F. Tauber.² The elements of administration vary in importance with the size of a library, and this will be taken into account. Planning, staffing, budgeting, organizing, directing, coordinating, and reporting will be considered. Although the principles of administration are the

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same for small libraries as for large ones, the emphasis differs. The principles to be discussed are division of labor, authority and responsibility, discipline, unity of command, unit of management, subordination of individual interests to the common good, remuneration, centralization, the hierarchy, span of control, departmentation, line and staff, order, equity, stability of staff, initiative, and esprit de corps.

Planning is important for all kinds of libraries. It involves not only the unit itself, but that larger thing of which the library is a part, whether it be a university, a city government, a school, or a research institution. As in chess, every move must lead toward a predetermined end. Planning states the objective and routes the movement towards it. In today's large library, motivated by a democratic type of administration, planning is benefited by the participation of a large professional staff. The small library suffers from the lack of such participation. Some of this can be overcome by outside professional advice. For a special project, such as a new building, such advice can be hired. For other matters, the small staff can profit greatly by attendance at professional meetings and by professional reading. In planning, as in all administrative phases of his work, the head of a small library is usually handicapped because of work pressure. He tends to be more involved in the operation of the library, as distinct from the administration of it. The smaller the library, the more likely this is to be true. An awareness of it on the part of the librarian will do more to cure it than anything else. Planning is often made difficult in the small unit also by the fact that the place of the library in the larger budget structure is less clear, less secure. In general, larger libraries have a better idea of the amount of money with which they will have to operate. The planner in the small library is hampered continually by lack of adequate funds and by uncertainty, and this probably explains a certain stagnancy in the growth of small libraries in general. A case could be made for the proposition that planning is even more important in the small library than in the large, in that as much as possible must be extracted from the limited resources available.

Although the small library has fewer positions to fill, it needs to exercise great care in filling them. Members of its staff find themselves doing a wider variety of things, and should be capable of adjusting to a wider range of activities. The clerical help must be of high calibre because it often must fill in when professionals are absent. In the large library, if an inadequate person has been hired, he can be transferred to some part of the staff where his shortcomings are less

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evident. This is impossible in the small library. In most, but not in all types of small libraries, the salaries are smaller. This is only one reason that it is harder to attract people to positions in them. There is less opportunity for advancement, and less chance to specialize in any certain aspect of library work. Because small libraries are more likely to be understaffed than large libraries, work pressure is also greater. On the plus side, it certainly can be said that the librarian in the small library comes to know more thoroughly the public he serves, and thus is often able to render better service to the individual. Again, while the new staff member is in training in a small library, he finds himself benefiting from close contact with the whole staff. In a library of any size, administration must be concerned with personnel policy, hence salaries, hours of work, convenience of physical surroundings. These are all of concern in the small library as elsewhere.

Financial administration involves not only budgeting, but dealing with such things as bookkeeping, purchasing, fines, the financial situation of the larger organization to which the library belongs, and relations with other parts of the larger organization which have some responsibilities for library finances. The small library is perhaps unlikely to have someone on the staff who takes care of the library's financial affairs as a full-time task. Either the librarian or the business office of the parent institution handles it. Although every library should have a budget system regardless of its size, many small libraries are without that. One of the effects of this situation is that the library must live on the leftovers of the larger budget from which it feeds. The budget of the small library is relatively simple and commonly is made up by the librarian in charge. This means that the librarian is in somewhat closer touch with the budgeting than in the larger library, which often has a staff officer to handle such work.

In the small library having more than one person on the staff, the nature of the staff helps determine the departmentalization. If there is only one professional worker, of necessity those tasks that can only be performed by a professional person must be discharged by him. This often means that the librarian is so busy in selecting, ordering, and cataloging materials that little time is left for service to the public. Inasmuch as the latter certainly calls for a professional type of service too, the next step in organizational growth should be to have a person for the public service, including reference work. Beyond this, the head of the library should be given more and more time to devote to administrative duties. At all stages, clerical work should be done by

clerks whenever possible. Work relationships should be clearly defined, so that each individual understands his responsibilities, and position descriptions should be established for each post. With "directing," as with organization, there is less concern in the small library than in the large. However, as soon as the staff increases beyond one, someone must direct, and someone must give thought to the effect of this on future policy. The "chain of command" and "keeping in channels," so important in a very large system, seem relatively unimportant in the small library. Coordination, too, is a somewhat simpler matter in the small library. Again, however, the minute there is any departmentalization, coordination becomes a problem—for instance, those who select, order, and catalog materials must know the needs of the public for which this is done. Poor coordination in this sphere could lead to the creation of a book collection unrealistic in terms of the needs of the readers.

Reporting is important for the small library as well as the large one, and when the reporting is to persons who are not librarians it is particularly so. In this case there is a responsibility on the part of the report writer to "educate" the recipient in the real meaning of library service and in the possibilities of that service if it is properly supported at the top level. There have been cases where properly written reports have resulted in greatly increased funds for a library. Material for them must be gathered with the purposes of the reports in mind, being a part of the administrative responsibility. It should be added that the librarian should keep firmly in mind the over-all aims of the institution which the library serves. The effectiveness of the library in furthering these objectives may be most important to the reader of the report.

The art of administration is perhaps so-called because so much is involved in the way it is done. In discussing the principles of administration of small libraries, it must be remembered that the method of applying these principles is very important. Each individual will use them differently, and therein often his success or failure will lie. It is in such utilization that the chief disparity between large and small libraries appears. In the following discussion of these principles, particular applications to the small library situation will be noted.

The head of a library is responsible for all of its activities, whether or not he delegates any of his responsibility. If he does pass on some of his duties however, he can hold responsible the person to whom he delegates them. In case that person proves unreliable, the authority

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given can be withdrawn. As long as a department head, for instance, has responsibility for his department, he, and not the library director, runs that department. He in turn may hand over authority to someone within his department. In a small library this is done somewhat less than in a large library because the librarian finds less need to depute authority.

Related to this is unity of command. A worker should receive orders from only one superior and should be responsible to only one. Department heads should not give direction to assistants in other departments. Also, the librarian should not give orders directly to assistants of department heads to whom he has delegated authority. A small staff certainly makes adherence to this principle more difficult, as there is more of a temptation to by-pass when contact is close.

A considerable amount has been said here about division of labor as an element in organization. It is also an important administrative principle. When a library is beyond the one-man stage, each task should be the responsibility of one person. If everyone were to do part of each task, there soon would be confusion. Assignment of tasks should be reasonable in terms of time and place and should conform to local usage. The small library must often, being a smaller unit and more dependent, do more than others might do to conform to the habits of a parent institution. Also, a small library patently can not always avoid setting up a job requiring less than the full time of one person.

In libraries of all sizes the problem of discipline must be effectively solved through good leadership. The head of a small library has a greater opportunity to judge disputes fairly, because he has more opportunity to know the facts in a case. He should not be a strict disciplinarian, but make each person realize that everyone on the staff, himself included, is bound by agreements which will render the library an effective operating unit. It is important that there be an over-all feeling of fair play, respect for authority, and freedom from the burden of discipline applied by a strict taskmaker.

The principle of unit of management stresses the need for organizing in such a way that the planning and operation for each kind of work, e.g., acquisitions, be done on the basis of units. Such arrangement must, of course, fit into the total plan, but each minor part must have its separate planning and administration. The smaller the library, the less emphasis is needed on this principle. However, it becomes more important with the addition of each new staff member.

The number of persons with whom the top administrator must deal is not much of a problem in a small library. However, if the library is departmentalized, the administrator may well deal directly only with department heads. Certain types of library work, such as cataloging, call for more detailed supervision. If the library is in two places rather than one there is a limitation on the control that can be exercised by one person. If work in an area is homogeneous, supervision is relatively easy. In whatever case, the larger situation forces the administrator to relinquish his direct supervisory duties, creating a hierarchy in which authority is exercised through "channels." Orders go down the line and requests come up. At each "landing" there is a "line" chief who has administrative authority over those directly below him. "Staff" officers are advisory and are usually asked to do special jobs for which they are especially fitted. Their status in the hierarchy is not changed because of this. The small library is not much concerned with "line and staff," but the principle entailed in it holds good for all libraries staffed by more than one.

Determining "what is a fair salary" may be more difficult in the small library than in the large, since formal compensation schemes may be not so likely to exist where there are few persons on a staff. Yet the remuneration of an individual should be just in relation to the wages paid to others having more or less the same qualifications and doing work of equal importance. Good employees should be rewarded by raises, as an incentive to do better work. In turn, the library assistant should subordinate his interests to the common good in library matters.

In the matters of equity, stability, initiative, and esprit de corps, the whole staff of any library, small as well as large, is involved. In equity, equal pay for equal work and non-preferential treatment are important. The former assumes that the holders of comparable positions are equivalently qualified, and the latter that individuals ordinarily do not deserve special consideration. Stability of staff, which these days is endangered by the scarcity of librarians and the resulting turnover, is something to be sought. If a staff is full of excellent people, stability may decline because of opportunities to move to better positions in other libraries. The alternative is to load the staff with librarians who do average work and will be less likely to resign. Perhaps a combination of the two is best. A completely stable staff would hold some who might better be lost, which would be unhealthy. Initiative should be encouraged, and staff members who suggest and carry out projects are happier and work harder than would be possible otherwise. This

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can be carried too far, of course, but in moderation it is excellent. The administrator can do a great deal to help develop an esprit de corps. An "open door" policy, plus proper application of the above mentioned principles, will lead to a feeling of general well-being. The administrator should be friendly and willing to help in difficult personnel situations.

In the small library there should be a higher degree of centralization than in the large library. The duplication of bibliographical tools and in book purchasing otherwise necessary is impractical in the small situation. Moreover, departmentalization usually does not reach such a stage of development that a subject arrangement of materials is feasible, and it is this arrangement that is the usual motivating force towards decentralization.

Another principle concerns the correct placing of work and personnel. Even in a small library the work flow should be such that incoming materials progress logically from one point to the next in an efficient manner, and that use of the materials later, by staff and public, is distributed efficaciously. Personnel-wise, this means that each person should be in a place suitable to his experience and talents.

This discussion has shown that in administrative matters small libraries differ from large libraries only in the manner and degree of applying administrative elements and principles. The chief dissimilarity seems to lie in the ways of employing the principles. The closeness of the administrator to his library operation, the relatively uncomplicated organizational structure of the library, and the small budget, are all factors in this application. Although administration is not the problem in the small library that it is in the large one, the librarian of the former would do well to study it, thinking in terms of his own library activity.

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Future of Library Administration

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ASSUMING THAT OTHER SECTIONS in the present issue of *Library Trends* portray a current overview of library administration, it may remain to venture a glance at the future. Such an effort seems appropriate since library administration is concerned broadly with the man power and materials required to attain institutional objectives, even though it might not be expected in a context dealing with conditions and movements.

The twenty-six issues of *Library Trends* which have preceded this number have covered the most important aspects of organization, man power, and materials involved in library administration. Issues have been devoted to types of libraries; to the acquisition, conservation, and servicing of general, special, and research resources; and to such particular aspects of man power as personnel administration, scientific management, and mechanization. A review of these, and of related matter as mentioned below, furnishes a reasonably sound foundation for predicting developments.

The most recent material along these lines appeared as this article was being written. Paul Wasserman¹ "attempts to assess the point to which management of libraries has progressed, to draw parallels with related fields, and to point out avenues which appear most promising for furthering development of management theory and practice in the library field." He reviews the literature, considers current orientation to administration, training for library administration, parallels between library and public administration, achievements in educational administration, and suggests avenues for advancing library administration. His article might well be at hand as the reader goes through this number of *Library Trends*.

In the public library field, C. B. Joeckel's *Government of the American Public Library*, Arnold Miles and Lowell Martin's *Public Administration and the Library*, and the publications which resulted from the

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Public Library Inquiry constitute benchmarks in the literature of this area. Supplementing them, the papers presented before the twenty-second Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in 1957, dealing with new directions in public library development, provide a sound basis for certain predictions.²

The summary of the Chicago conference by Lester Asheim emphasizes that the American public library is in an era of exciting social change. R. D. Leigh points out the changing concepts of the library's role, with emphasis on the idea that library service is a responsibility of the state as well as of the local community. Loleta D. Fyan cites implications for the future as raised by the Library Services Act. The outlook for support for public agencies, with particular reference to libraries, is presented by C. H. Chatters. P. M. Hauser demonstrates that library planning over the next several decades must take into account shifts in the population growth, distribution, and composition of population, and in the physical structure of metropolitan areas. The question of what relation professional decisions, or lack of them, bear to the needs and interests of the public the librarians are trying to serve is raised by J. W. Getzels, particularly as related to children; and Dan Lacy offers nine inferences for the public library in summarizing his consideration of the adult in a changing society.

Considering new approaches to the collection and services, R. R. Munn concludes that the consolidation or federation of small libraries into county or regional systems is the only means by which the country as a whole can secure adequate public library service. The implications for personnel caused by these changing concepts of the public library's place in our dynamic society are considered by E. A. Wight in terms of numbers, recruiting, regrouping of work and job enlargement, in-service training, and certification. He concludes that the development of state-wide cooperatively sponsored programs for training and developing competent middle administrators is needed, and a program on a national basis to train and certify qualified specialists and top administrators is imperative if the library profession is to embody a mature and responsible group.

Academic libraries face administrative problems similar to those confronting public libraries, and for much the same reasons—growth and changing nature of the population to be served, growth in size of institutions, and increasing competition for funds from public as well as private sources. It is clear that libraries will not progress unless library administrators are successful in gaining public approval and

support in competition with the other demands on bodies controlling tax proceeds.

The literature on the rising tide of students and the problems they will present to colleges and universities is voluminous and should be familiar to librarians. Federal and state governments, foundations, associations and organizations, institutions, and individuals are busily engaged in research on this problem.

Examples of activity by the federal government are reports of the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School, and the various publications of the United States Office of Education. Among those by state agencies, outstanding examples are to be found in Michigan and California. The Michigan Legislative Study Committee on Higher Education issued between June 1957 and June 1958 ten staff studies in *The Survey of Higher Education in Michigan*. The Liaison Committee of the Regents of the University of California and the California State Board of Education published in 1955 a 473-page report entitled, *A Restudy of the Needs of California in Higher Education*. In this, libraries receive some three pages of attention, most of which is devoted to central library storage and space standards. These state agencies have made detailed analyses of institutional programs, including teaching loads and instructional productivity; physical plant needs, including space utilization; the state's ability to support higher education; and the organization and administration of higher education.

The Committee on Utilization of College Teaching Resources, established by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, has made grants to assist experimentation on a wide scale.³ Such experimentation in four major areas has been supported: (1) the placing of greater responsibility on students for their education; (2) rearrangement of course structure; (3) the discovery of new resources, both in teaching and in performance of duties ordinarily expected of teachers, which will be in addition to the usual graduate supply of new full-time teachers; and (4) increasing the institutional reach of colleges and universities.

The Monticello Conference of the Association of Research Libraries in 1954 discussed problems of research libraries, particularly those relating to finances and to cooperative activities, and raised questions that should be investigated.⁴

Looking to the advancement of library service generally, the Folger Library Conferences held in 1955 led to recommendations to the Ford

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Foundation which resulted the following year in the incorporation of the Council on Library Resources, Inc. This was set up as an independent, nonprofit body having as its principal objective "to aid in the solution of library problems; to conduct research in, develop and demonstrate new techniques and methods and to disseminate through any means the results thereof." Underwriting it, the Foundation made a grant of \$5 million to be expended over a five-year period.

The first annual report of the Council⁶ marked out three areas within which it expected to find opportunities for fruitful work: (1) basic research in the processes of distribution, organization, storage and communication of knowledge as these affect libraries; (2) technological development looking to the physical-mechanical apparatus of library work (including the collections themselves) and to the applications of mechanisms not yet utilized, and (3) methodological development and coordination of effort looking to over-all development. One of the early moves by the Council was a grant to the Graduate School of Library Service at Rutgers University for a study, "Targets for Research in Library Work," to be directed by R. R. Shaw. That undertaking will summarize the state of the art and the lacunae of understanding in various aspects of librarianship.

The three promotional programs which probably have been of most significance to libraries are the Andrew Carnegie gifts, the Library Services Act, and the establishing of the Council on Library Resources. The gifts of Carnegie led to the construction of nearly three thousand buildings, and the Library Services Act will, it is hoped, bring a great extension of public library services. However, they will have created and increased administrative questions, rather than helped to meet them. The Council program should be of much significance through the contributions it may make toward solving the administrative problems of libraries.

In the area of organization, administration, and functions of academic libraries, the most comprehensive single source of information is L. R. Wilson and M. F. Tauber's *The University Library*. The 1956 edition concludes with a chapter which enumerates and discusses briefly ten categories of problems facing university libraries today. The categories are: (1) history of university libraries, (2) organization and administration, (3) finance, (4) personnel, (5) technical services, (6) services to readers, (7) bibliography and documentation, (8) book and other collections, (9) cooperation and specialization, and (10) buildings and equipment. The authors emphasize the meager

support of research on library matters, and the fact that fewer persons are being trained in research in library schools with the changes in the master's programs which have eliminated courses in the methodology of research and a thesis. The Council on Library Resources may be an adequate source of research support, but it will not provide the personnel which the present programs of the library schools fail to supply.

A recent reappraisal of the place and function of the library in the four-year college was made at the nineteenth Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in 1954.⁶ The program was divided into three major parts: (1) an attempt to ascertain the major current educational objectives and their actual relationships to the library, (2) an analysis of the major resources that the college library must have to meet its obligations, and (3) financial problems of the college library and a summary of some of the major questions and issues mentioned by the various speakers.

In pointing to a few of the major problems, trends, and observations mentioned by the speakers in their separate analyses of various aspects of the college library, H. H. Fussler cites evidence that librarians may be failing to communicate well with faculty members and college administrators, and raises the question as to whether librarians talk about the right things when they do communicate. He suggests that the librarian's position is difficult, being unique in the academic structure because nominally he takes his orders from the president but must determine his actions principally according to faculty needs and directions.⁷

Donald Coney at the Monticello Conference suggested that the isolation of librarians from the sources of high administrative policy has encouraged their exclusiveness, and that librarians have found it easier to work with each other than with scholars. In his opinion the librarian must seek better information on his university's educational plans than he usually has; but he agrees with Fussler that this is not an easy task, since the librarian has no counterpart in the educational economy of the university. Consequently, he must rely on fragmentary information, often obtained by accident from a variety of sources. Also, according to Coney, university librarians are usually bad reporters of what they do, and he suggests use of a "performance budget" to demonstrate the relation of the many operations of the university library to the appropriate university activity.⁸

In demonstrating where the librarian stands in the hierarchy of the

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college, Wilson offers a comparison of salaries received in 1952-53 by librarians in colleges with those of administrative personnel and faculty. These figures indicate that the librarian, at least in terms of salary, ranks well toward the bottom of the administrative group, and only at the top of the instructor rank in the academic group.⁹

Fussler finds "the library salary structure as reported by Wilson is disturbing, not so much because of the low salaries themselves as because of the implications of the adverse differentials between the librarians' salaries and the other administrative and teaching salaries. We see ourselves as major academic, administrative officers, charged with the responsibility for building, maintaining, and operating the single most complex, most expensive, and most widely used instrument of learning and research within any academic institution—cyclotrons and ion accelerators not excepted—the library."¹⁰

More recent studies by the U. S. Office of Education and by the Research Division of the National Education Association indicate that the librarian in all types of colleges and universities, public and private, holds approximately the same hierarchical position, in terms of salary, as in the college library figures for 1952-53. A survey by the U. S. Office of Education, based on returns from 429 public and 717 private institutions, included salaries paid to administrative personnel. Its report embraces a section as follows:

The 10 of the 24 administrative positions in 1957-58 paid the highest mean salaries for public and private colleges and universities combined . . . are shown below. The highest mean salary is in the first position and the other positions are in a descending order.

1. President
2. Dean of the graduate school
3. Executive dean or academic vice president
4. Director of planning (physical plant)
5. Director of development (fund-raising)
6. Chief business officer
7. Dean of students
8. Administrative assistant to the president
9. Director of student health
10. Director of non-academic personnel.¹¹

When institutions were divided into categories by type and according to method of control, the data revealed the remuneration of the director of the library ranking among salaries for administrative posi-

tions in the several classes as follows: 9th, 11th, 13th, 7th, 13th, 12th, 13th, 17th, 10th, and 15th. They put it above those of such officers as alumni secretary, registrar, director of food services, chief accounting officer, and manager of residence halls.

A study made by the Research Division of the National Education Association in 1957 disclosed that among the salaries paid to administrative officers in 723 degree-granting institutions in 1957-58, the median compensation of the head librarians ranked 20th in the list of 23 such officers, being higher than the salaries of the deans of women and the registrars.¹² This same study indicated that in 181 junior colleges the librarian tied with the director of public relations for last place salary-wise among nine administrative officers. In 72 private junior colleges the librarians ranked 8th in salary, ahead of the dean of women.¹³ The median remuneration for the head librarians in 723 degree-granting institutions in 1957-58 was \$6,134 for twelve months of service; that paid to full-time instruction personnel of all ranks in 772 degree-granting institutions for the same period was \$6,015 for nine months of service.¹⁴

Jerrold Orne¹⁵ and L. C. Powell¹⁶ have expressed their concern over excessive appointments of non-librarians to the librarianship of major educational institutions. Powell suggests that these are made by executives who do not like what they see passing for librarians, and his solution is to provide librarians who are readers of books and servants of those in need of help, instead of "cynical and unbelieving technicians, ambitious for a quick climb to the top of the ladder."

Orne points out "serious and distinctive differences both in character and demand between academic librarians and those who are selected to serve in large public or important special libraries." He proposes a new educational pattern, which will bring superior candidates into the library field to be trained for top-level academic positions.

Powell comments on "a trend toward taking top library administrators out of their posts and making them some other kind of administrator—which seems to me an admission that the person had been in the wrong work all his life." In this instance he would appear to disagree with David Riesman, who, in considering the movement from craft skill to manipulative skill suggests the emergence of a new pattern in American business and professional life, according to which "if one is successful in one's craft, one is forced to leave it."¹⁷ Riesman cites as examples the newspaperman who becomes a deskman, the doctor who becomes the head of a clinic or hospital, the professor who

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becomes a dean, president, or foundation official. He points out that when the size of enterprises was small, the head could remain a colleague among other colleagues, not cutting connections entirely to enter a new milieu. The older generation of college presidents was composed largely of men who continued to think of themselves as scholars.

Riesman adds that, "The executive who has moved up from a professional position can hardly help feeling that his work is air-conditioned: fine only so long as the machinery below runs smoothly. Those colleagues whom he has left behind will not be slow, in their envy, to remind him that he can no longer consider himself a competent craftsman among his fellow craftsmen, that he does not fool them if, as an editor or by-line columnist, he occasionally attends a presidential press conference; or, as a college administrator, an occasional scholarly convention. . . ." ¹⁸ He comments also that a society increasingly dependent on manipulation of people is almost as destructive of the craft-oriented professional man as a society in the earlier stages of industrialization is destructive of the handicraft-oriented peasant and artisan. The professional worker of today is pushed upstairs into the managerial class; but in a profession such as librarianship most positions will continue to offer comfortable places to inner-directed types. Powell's "readers of books and servants of those in need of help" must be available in staffing libraries, but the top administrators must be those who can build into smooth-flowing organizations the skills that were once built into men by a long apprenticeship process.

In summary, the present writer suggests the following trends which appear likely to affect library administration in the future:

1. Growth in size of library service units, institutional and geographical, with an attendant requirement of real managerial skill to assure maximum utilization of total resources.
2. Altered demands for library service, reflecting population and social changes and calling for administrative capacities to meet them.
3. Increasing competition for funds, from public and private sources, which will make much more important the ability of the chief library administrator to communicate with his superiors in presenting library programs and needs.
4. Increasing attention to basic research in the three areas defined by the Council on Library Resources, with the possible result of major modifications in the whole field of library administration.
5. Changes in education for librarianship, to assist in producing

liberally prepared executives who, as recruits from the profession can move up from the ranks to the level of managerial responsibility needed.

If these trends do develop, as it now appears they may, an appreciation of the uses of books still will be the major factor in the successful administration of libraries.

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EXITUS IN DUBIO EST, even after our best decision, there is need for continued search for information and counsel. Literature on aspects of library administration is fairly well indexed and listed in books and periodical indexes, and it seems unnecessary to call attention to sources and materials already familiar to administrators. On the other hand, the vast sea of literature on management and administration is not well charted, therefore, the following sources are suggested for reference in business literature and elsewhere.

Since organization is "one major aspect of higher administration"¹ a few titles pertinent to that may be cited as a start. Perhaps first come the works of Henri Fayol,^{2, 3} who was of course one of the earliest of the more profound analysts of the processes of administration. After listing five groups of industrial undertakings he gives a sixth which seems of basic importance, especially to libraries, viz.: "operations administratives (prévoyance, organization, coordination et contrôle) . . ." — planning, organization, direction or command, coordination, and control. Although F. W. Taylor⁴ in 1912 considered organization, he was interested mostly in technical problems of time study and motion control. A useful distinction between two aspects of administration has been made also by L. F. Urwick⁵ — the structural and the operating.

Some later books, which may well be referred to for broader understanding of the field, include that of Ordway Tead,⁶ who regards administration as a "fine art" and organization aims from a social-psychological viewpoint. Another classic is C. I. Barnard's *The Functions of the Executive*,^{7, 8} the first half of the book dealing with the theory, and the second half with the elements of formal organization. Another well-known book, with a somewhat different approach, is J. D. Mooney's *The Principles of Organization*,⁹ which considers the principles as "coordinative," "scalar," and "functional." His develop-

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ment of these ideas historically through the state, church, military, and industry, is most helpful toward understanding his viewpoint. The works of Catheryn Seckler-Hudson^{10, 11} are basic, both *Organization and Management*, which contains some five hundred annotated references, and the *Papers on Organization and Management*. Also a "classic" is the compilation by L. H. Gulick and L. F. Urwick,¹² *Papers on the Science of Administration*, with contributions by Gulick, Urwick, Fayol, H. S. Dennison, Mary Parker Follett, and others. A more recent work, somewhat on the industrial side, but detailed in its treatment of all phases of organization and management, is that of R. C. Davis on *Industrial Organization and Management*.¹³

For a graphic presentation of organization, the Company Organization Charts published by the National Industrial Conference Board,¹⁴ the illustrative charts in Davis, the Koppers Company, Inc. *Organization Manual*,¹⁵ and the annual reports of a number of corporations, obtainable direct, will prove suggestive and helpful. Most corporations are willing to send such reports free to requesting libraries providing the purpose is explained. In connection with organization should be mentioned the work of the American Institute of Management which issues annually a *Manual of Excellent Managements*.¹⁶ In this a "management audit," comprising ten bases for evaluation, is applied to specific individual companies. Each base or category of excellence is assigned a number of points, one group for best, and another for "minimum of excellence." These points are totaled for the final score. Firms standing high on different bases, such as "executive evaluation," are listed with other high-scoring companies in that category, in separate sections and with comments. Bases have been worked out by the Institute also for colleges, hospitals, institutions, and religious organizations. So far no reports on libraries have been published.

Apart from the few general works on organization mentioned above, what are the sources of current information on publications in the field of administration? There are some bibliographies, issued monthly, and cumulated annually by the American Management Association,^{17, 18} including one called the *A.M.A. Management Bookshelf*, giving notes, and for some, contents. The two-volume edition of *Selection of Management Personnel*, for example, was announced and described in these notes. Although the publications mentioned have a business slant, they are helpful to librarians as a source of ideas. Also issued by an association, the Tax Foundation,¹⁹ is the monthly *Library Bulletin*, which is typically arranged and has pertinent references under such headings

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as "Administrative Management," "Civil Service," "Job Analysis," "Salaries—Teachers," "Insurance, Health," as well as a section on "Studies to be Made." Issued by the Civil Service Commission of the United States, is *Personnel Literature*,²⁰ a monthly listing of material under subjects ranging from automation to writing, with annotations on some entries. It contains not only reference to government materials but to those published otherwise. Also of some interest is the Joint Reference Library's weekly *Recent Publications on Governmental Problems*.²¹ Other guides include *Business and Technology Sources*²² from the Business and Technology Department of the Cleveland Public Library, some issues of which are on special topics, such as management, and give brief comments on the contents of selected books, pamphlets, and periodical articles. A similar publication appears under the auspices of the Business Library of the Newark Public Library called *Business Literature*,²³ the November-December 1957 number of which, for example, is headed "Management Research Publications." Two more extensive review publications belong in this group: one being *The Executive* from Baker Library of Harvard University,²⁴ which covers pertinent books, pamphlets, and periodical articles, the former being reviewed and the latter abstracted; and the other is the monthly *Management Review*, issued by the American Management Association,²⁵ whose features include "Business Digests of the Month," "Management Policy and Practice," "Operating Guides for Executives," "What Others Are Doing," "Also Recommended" (survey of timely articles), and "Survey of Books for Executives." The University of Chicago Industrial Relations Center issues two series, one called *Issues and Ideas*,²⁶ containing abstracts of books and periodical articles; and the second a bibliographic venture dating from 1954 to date, titled *Significant Sources in Management, Organization, Industrial Relations*,²⁷ with such sub-headings as "Industrial Research and the Professional Employee," "Executive Development," "Aging and Retirement," in addition to material specifically on labor.

Publishers of some of the so-called services likewise offer material in the field of administration. For example, the Dartnell Corporation²⁸ issues the monthly *Dartnell Personnel Administration Service* dealing with what other organizations are doing in fields of personnel management; the Bureau of Business Management at the University of Illinois²⁹ publishes some free and some priced materials on management and personnel. Some such items border on labor relations; however, the Industrial Relations Newsletter Inc., issuing the *Industrial*

Relations News,³⁰ covers weekly the "trends in management thinking, organization planning, executive development, and reports on special subjects of particular current importance." Two series are published by the National Industrial Conference Board,³¹ viz., *Management Record*, "monthly, containing articles on personnel practices and procedures," and *Studies in Personnel Policy*, a series of "reports on current personnel practice in representative companies." Of somewhat limited interest but helpful are the National Retail Dry Goods Association annual *Executive Compensation Survey*,³² and its *Personnel Service*, a bi-monthly magazine containing current information on what stores are doing about personnel.

Somewhat more current is the loose-leaf service of Prentice-Hall, Inc., *Personnel Policies and Practices*,³³ a "manual of methods and procedures to develop and improve personnel relations." Monthly and quarterly abstracts or digests similarly are available for subscription, for instance the U. S. Government Advertiser, Inc. *Management Guide*,³⁴ a "monthly digest of current management literature from over seventy-five leading management magazines," and *Personnel Management Abstracts*,³⁵ a quarterly which "covers selected materials published in books and periodicals on personnel psychology, training, labor relations, human relations," and several other related areas.

Advisory agencies are the Psychological Services, Inc.³⁶ which undertakes employee morale surveys and personnel research; the American Management Association, which offers *Management Information Service*,³⁷ and the Institute of Applied Psychology, Inc.,³⁸ concerned with "personnel selection, job evaluation, aptitude testing, and employee morale surveys . . . personality tests." There also is a number of engineering and management organizations that offer consultation and survey services. The American Management Association publishes a *Directory of Consultant Members*,³⁹ a classified list, with an alphabetic, descriptive section, and a brief introduction on "Selecting, working with a consultant." The Association of Consulting Management Engineers issues a similar though smaller *Directory of Members*⁴⁰ with descriptive notes. The latest edition is somewhat outdated, but a new one is being published. Another association that should be mentioned is the Society for the Advancement of Management, which aims to apply scientific principles to business undertakings. Although its monthly publication, *Advanced Management*,⁴¹ is largely slanted toward industry and business, it offers occasional articles worth considering by library administrators.

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Another source helpful in its leads is the book or article devoted to reviews of research. Two instances are: F. Herzberg and others, *Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion*,⁴² and R. E. Andrews' *Leadership and Supervision, a Survey of Research Findings: a Management Report*.⁴³ Each contains a wealth of suggestions for further study of the various phases of these two fields, pertinent to careful analysis of persisting problems in most libraries, and suggesting applications of future research therein.

Further reference sources useful to administration are management dictionaries, encyclopedias, and handbooks. One of the most extensive is J. C. Aspley's *Handbook of Employee Relations*.⁴⁴ Although, as is true of most books in the field, it relates primarily to industry and business; it contains a number of sections that may prove valuable in working with personnel problems. Almost as extensive and almost as large, J. F. Mee's *Personnel Handbook*⁴⁵ is still not as recent, yet some general suggestions in it, however, seem still valid. A *Management Dictionary* by A. E. Benn⁴⁶ likewise is not up to date, but is useful for terms in vogue prior to 1951. Most recent is the new book by E. R. Becker entitled *Dictionary of Personnel and Industrial Relations*.⁴⁷

Library administrators are doubtless familiar with some of the many management journals listed in the classified list of Ulrich's *Periodicals Directory*, so that there is no need to repeat their titles here. Attention should be given, however, in spite of the rather forbidding title, to *Operations Research*,⁴⁸ issued by the Operations Research Society of America. Its contents comprise primarily articles on the scientific method applied to business, with models for working out several courses of action, one of which is finally selected as most satisfactory and often called the optimum solution. Although this is so far limited in use, except in business, it has possibilities for other fields, and should not be overlooked by anyone seeking answers to complicated administrative problems. One of the most readable accounts of the subject, giving some background and illustrations, may be found in *Operations Research*⁴⁹ of the American Management Association. There are now other relevant societies, including the Institute of Management Sciences organized in 1953. That body publishes *Management Science*, in the January 1957 issue of which is a "Progress Report" by the President, G. H. Symonds, assuming to present "not only a multi-disciplinary science but also a new sub-science in the field of sociology."⁵⁰ There are two comparable societies in England, the Operational Research Society,⁵¹ and the British Institute of Management.^{52, 53}

Since the literature of business administration is extensive, and sometimes quite uninteresting to the librarian, it seems worth-while to note the review article, another shortcut for scanning the titles without necessarily examining all the items which seem promising in content. One of the most fruitful periodicals for this is the *Harvard Business Review*. To mention a few of the recent articles will give some notion of their nature. Harriet O. Ronken⁵⁴ has written on the training of supervisors, and mentioned some books useful in that field. H. C. Thole,⁵⁵ in 1954, surveyed the area of management control. Robert Saltonstall⁵⁶ reviewed in 1955 organization, responsibility, and authority in personnel administration. In 1956, J. L. Massie⁵⁷ dealt with materials on *Automation for Management*. Rex Harlow⁵⁸ reported in 1957 recent contributions of interest in communications for executives. Incidentally, the *Harvard Business Review* itself is worth consulting for articles on subjects of significance to the administrator. Two articles of value, for instance, appeared in the March-April 1958 issue: "Measuring Organizational Performance,"⁵⁹ and "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern."⁶⁰

Bibliographies also have merit, even though that decreases rapidly with the progress of research and publications currently appearing in serial form. One of the most competent and extensive is Paul Wasserman's *Information for Administrators*.⁶¹ More of a guide than a list, it does contain sections entitled "Basic Publications in Business Administration," and "Basic Publications in Public Administration of Interest to Librarians." More immediately pertinent is R. E. McCoy's *Personnel Administration for Libraries*⁶² which is a bibliographical essay. Also, W. H. Dickerson's *Bibliography on Qualities of an Executive*⁶³ is an annotated, classified list of selected references through 1953. Another extensive work in an area of limited interest here is the National Office Management Association's *Bibliography for Office Management*,⁶⁴ which has been appearing annually. The coverage of new as well as of worth-while older material, and the gist of articles, are included. These are a few examples of a growing group of publications which seem increasingly to deserve examining, though it is necessary to be even more selective for library purposes than for the general use for which some of them intended.

With increasing costs facing administrators, the topic of time and motion study crops up from time to time in library literature. J. A. Parton's *Motion and Time Study Manual*⁶⁵ is fairly comprehensive, as well as M. E. Mundel's *Motion and Time Study*.⁶⁶ Most important

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of recent works is R. E. Morrow's *Motion Economy and Work Measurement*,⁶⁷ which also, most appropriately, goes into the problem of fatigue. This matter has had little serious consideration in the library field, but is becoming no less important there than in industry, as many activities become routinized. There is a number of studies of physical as well as mental fatigue, from that of Josephine C. Goldmark in 1912 to the latest findings published by such organizations as the American Psychological Association. Apart from the Goldmark study the standard examples are that of the Western Electric Company,⁶⁸ and a summary account by Elton Mayo in *Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization*.⁶⁹ Chapter eight of this is of especial interest for a discussion of the need for a continuing supply of administrators, to maintain the present level of civilization and/or culture. Another landmark is a British study made during World War I;⁷⁰ and most recent is the English symposium in 1952 on fatigue, edited by W. F. Floyd,⁷¹ in which the scientific approach is presented by a number of English, American, and other nationals.

Finally, one possible answer to fatigue and boredom may be found in wider use of automation. Already some work has been done by R. R. Shaw in developing a scanning machine and photoclerical procedures.⁷² A useful guide for executives is *Keeping Pace with Automation*,⁷³ issued by the American Management Association. There is, in addition, a more popular account by D. O. Woodbury, *Let Erma Do It*;⁷⁴ but for a detailed survey of equipment and service, the useful recourse is Automation Consultants, Inc., with its *Office Automation and Updating Service*.⁷⁵

Although the literature of administration continues to expand, these few guides may help save time and reduce the burden of search for optimum solutions to problems at hand. Much emphasis has been placed on business literature, as being most familiar to the writer and more mature than library literature. If some comment might be made on the latter, it sometimes shows a tendency to disregard or overlook what has been done in other fields.⁷⁶ In its researches it fails to utilize techniques more fully developed in other disciplines. It is hoped, therefore, that this brief guide will open some new areas of useable information.

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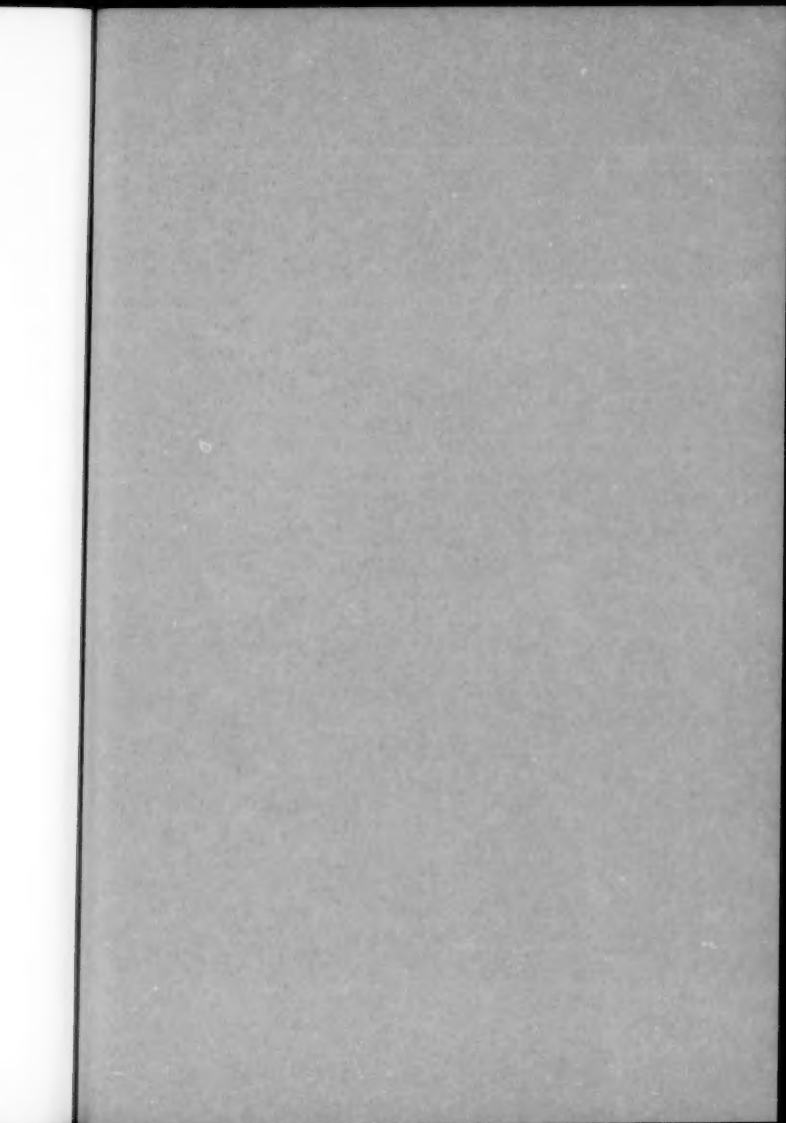
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April, 1959, *Current Trends in Bibliography*. Editor: Roy B. Stokes, Head, School of Librarianship, College of Further Education, Loughborough, England.

July, 1959, *Current Trends in Adult Education*. Editor: C. Walter Stone, Professor, Library School, University of Illinois.

October, 1959, *Trends in Newly Developing Countries*. Editor: Wilfred J. Plumbe, Librarian, Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology, Zaria, Nigeria.

The numbers of LIBRARY TRENDS issued prior to the present one dealt successively with college and university libraries, special libraries, school libraries, public libraries, libraries of the United States government, cataloging and classification, scientific management in libraries, the availability of library research materials, personnel administration, services to readers, library associations in the United States and British Commonwealth, acquisitions, national libraries, special materials and services, conservation of library materials, state and provincial libraries in the United States and Canada, American books abroad, mechanization in libraries, manuscripts and archives, rare book libraries and collections, circulation services, research in librarianship, cooperation, legal aspects of library administration, book publishing, and public relations.

